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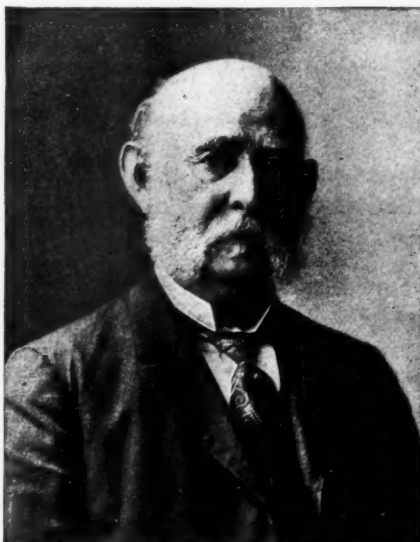
## LIFE IN WASHINGTON, D. C.

BY WILLIAM ELEROY CURTIS.

### II.

NEARLY one fourth of the employees in the executive departments are women, and it is the universal testimony of all unprejudiced officials of experience that they maintain a higher standard of efficiency than men in clerical work. This is even more noticeable in those branches of the treasury where bonds and money are to be handled. A treasury "countess" in the redemption division, where worn-out money is exchanged for new, or in the division of issue, from which all bank-bills and green-backs originally proceed, is unsurpassed for accuracy and acuteness in all the banking world. There are women in those offices whose instincts enable them to detect

regarded as the highest authority on that subject. There has seldom been a woman thief in any of the executive departments or in the post-offices throughout the country, although the agents of the secret service are constantly making arrests.



GEN. JAMES A. DUMONT, SUPERVISING INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF STEAMBOATS.

As clerks and correspondents women are equally efficient, and they often accomplish more than the men, although they are not promoted as rapidly and do not receive the same salaries. The highest compensation paid to a woman in government employ is \$1,800, and there are only two or three who receive that amount. Married women are not allowed to hold positions if they have husbands or sons to support them, and the majority of women clerks have obtained

a counterfeit note almost by the touch. There is one woman who has testified as an expert in nearly all important lawsuits involving the genuineness of money, and she is

their positions through competitive examinations. The old system of political patronage did not offer them as many opportunities as are afforded by the new system.

It is not possible for the women clerks in the departments to enter fashionable society. It is a matter of expense, however, and not of prejudice. There are several ladies holding government positions who may be cited as exceptions. They are welcomed and highly esteemed in the most fashionable circles. They are favorite guests at dinner parties and banquets and balls, because their social qualities are such as to add to the success and pleasure of any gathering. Nearly all of these exceptions come from families who have once been wealthy and prominent, and who have been able to retain the social position and the friendships that were formed during their days of prosperity. They have friends to assist them in keeping up appearances. These ladies are not expected to dress as elegantly as they once did, for all their acquaintances recognize their situation, but they are quite as popular as ever. Among the department clerks also are women of distinction who have been prominent in social life at the capital and whose husbands have served their country in the army, the navy, in Congress,

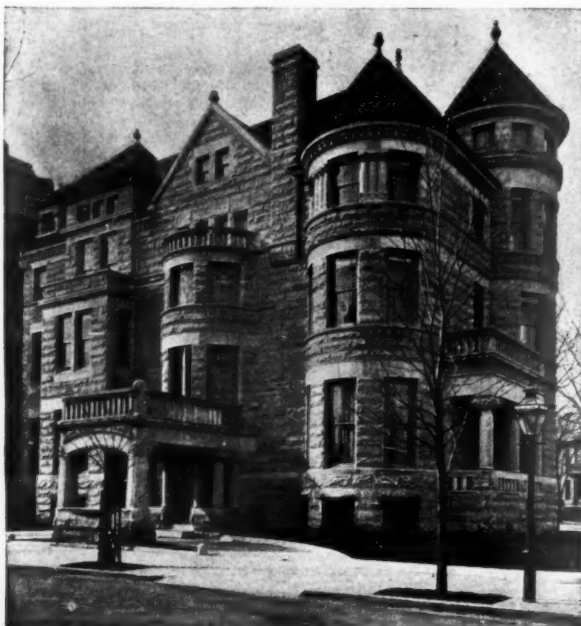


TORA HOSHI, JAPANESE MINISTER TO THE UNITED STATES.

and in other branches of political life. Not long ago the widow of a cabinet officer held

a desk in the Treasury Department, and the granddaughter of a president resigned her position only a few weeks ago. Two daughters of cabinet ministers occupy desks in one of the bureaus of a big department, and still another is serving as private secretary to the wife of a member of the cabinet. She has been so fortunate as to serve two other cabinet ladies and the wife of a vice-president in a similar capacity, and there is no more welcome guest in the fashionable circles of the capital than she.

I cite these illustrations to show that an appointment to office does not necessarily deprive a woman of her social posi-



RESIDENCE OF LIEUT. RICHARDSON CLOVER.





MRS. TORA HOSHI.

tion, but the salary that goes with it will not allow her to indulge in the expenses that are imposed upon a society woman. At the same time ladies in the departments have been taught by experience and observation that their positions are imperiled if they live in too much luxury or assume too much of what people call "airs." I might tell of a certain widow who held a lucrative position in one of the departments several years ago and at the same time indulged freely in social enjoyment. Thinking she might strengthen herself with the head of the department in which she had a desk, she gave an elaborate luncheon in honor of his daughter, which was attended by members of other cabinet families. Poor women who were struggling for existence, widows of soldiers who had nothing but their pensions to feed themselves and their children, mothers who were tramping the streets from dawn to sunset asking for work, shop-girls who were trying to live decent lives upon wages of \$3 a week, read of this luncheon in the newspapers as an important social event, and the misguided hostess found herself attacked from a hundred di-

rections. If she could afford to give such entertainments she did not need the salary of a clerk, and the cabinet minister whose daughter was entertained took a similar view of the case, and gave her office to the poor widow of a soldier.

There is no destiny but labor for a woman in a government department. Now and then one of them marries. The bridegroom is generally a fellow clerk whose prospects are no better than hers, but they find greater happiness in living together on one salary than living separately on two. Sometimes there are secret marriages in order that the wife may not be compelled to surrender her position, but sooner or later the truth comes out and it is the worse for both parties. The cost of comfort in Washington does not permit a woman clerk to save much money. Her salary is seldom more than \$900 or \$1,000 a year. Half of it goes for board, a quarter for dress, and she generally has some dependent relative who requires assistance. There are insurance companies which take risks upon the lives of government employees, and mutual associations and endowment companies through which they can make provision for their old age. Their work is easy, their associations are pleasant, and although the head of the division may have disagreeable manners and an unfriendly disposition their lives are quite as happy as those of any women who work.

The oldest employee of the government until recently was William Plume Moran, who was born in Norfolk, Va., in 1811. He was appointed clerk to the captain of the port of Norfolk on January 1, 1827, and served as such until

明治廿九年七月六日撮影  
於東國華盛頓府

AUTOGRAPH OF MRS.  
TORA HOSHI.



WILLIAM P. MORAN, UNTIL RECENTLY THE  
OLDEST GOVERNMENT CLERK

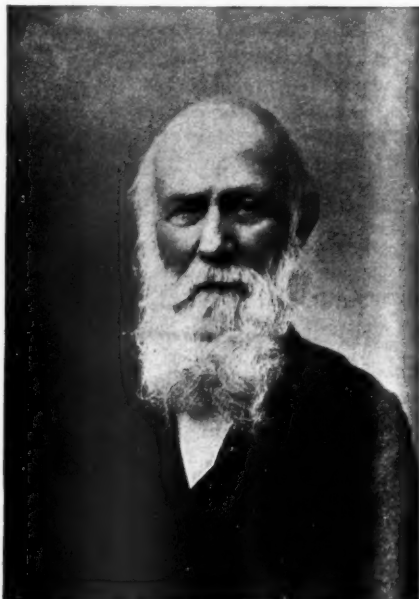
August 13, 1830, when he went to sea as captain's clerk and served on one ship or another for thirteen years, until October 23, 1843, when he entered the Navy Department as a clerk in the Bureau of Navigation. He was known as "Uncle Billy" by every officer in the naval service, and for over forty years signed the commission of every cadet appointed to the academy and of every officer who served in the navy during that time.

There are officers in the service whose several commissions, from ensign to admiral, bear his signature. During the war he was confidential secretary to Gideon Welles, and all the orders issued by Mr. Welles for four years passed through Mr. Moran's hands. His memory is famous throughout the navy. He knows the record of every officer without reference to the register, and can give the date of almost any commission that he has signed. The last secretary of the navy removed Mr. Moran because of age and infirmity.

Since the dismissal of Mr. Moran the senior clerk in the service of the government is Richard White, of the District of Columbia, who is employed at a salary of \$1,000 a year in the office of the auditor of the treasury for the Post-office Department. That

bureau was organized on the 2nd of July, 1836, while Andrew Jackson was president, Levi Woodbury secretary of the treasury, and Amos Kendall postmaster-general. Mr. White was appointed a clerk on the 21st of December following, and has remained on duty continuously in the same office since that date. He completed his sixty years of service on the 21st of December last. He has never held a prominent position, but has performed his humble duty faithfully and well. He was born in Rockville, a village just across the borders of the District of Columbia, in Maryland, in 1814, and is therefore eighty-three years of age. His health is excellent, and he retains all of his mental faculties and performs his duties every day. He has watched the postal service of the government grow from 11,091 to 70,360 offices. He has seen the revenues increase from \$3,408,323 to \$82,499,208 a year.

Only a few weeks ago Henry L. Whiting, who was second in seniority among government employees, laid down his after-dinner cigar, dropped back in his easy chair, and



RICHARD E. WHITE, THE OLDEST GOVERNMENT CLERK.



RESIDENCE OF COL. JOHN HAY, UNITED STATES AMBASSADOR TO GREAT BRITAIN.

fell into an eternal sleep. Mr. Whiting was a distinguished scientist, and served with the coast and geodetic survey for fifty-nine years. He was a native of Martha's Vineyard, and was appointed in 1838, shortly after the bureau was organized, and he developed the topographic methods of the survey. He was the only man who served under all the superintendents of that bureau. He was a member of the Mississippi River Commission, and had the direction of the Massachusetts state topographical survey in addition to his other duties. Although over eighty years of age, he was mentally and physically vigorous, and performed his duties with ability up to almost the very hour of his death, which came without warning and was a great shock to his associates. He spent the day at his office as usual, walked to his residence, dined with his family, was cheerful and hearty, and looked forward to many years of usefulness.

Charles A. Schott, the distinguished chief of the computing division of the coast survey, was appointed in 1848, and has held his present position since 1857. He was born in Germany in 1826, and is therefore seventy-one years old. He graduated at the polytechnic school at Carlsruhe as a civil engineer in

1847, and came immediately to this country. The division of which he has charge is that in which the astronomical, trigonometric, hypsometric, and magnetic results of the survey are discussed, and he has served the government with great distinction in that capacity. He is a member of many learned societies here and abroad—the National Academy of Sciences, the Philosophical Societies of Philadelphia and Washington, the Academia Givenia di Scienze National, and others. He has contributed a score or more of important meteorological and magnetic papers published by the Smithsonian Institution, notably discussions of meteorological, tidal, and magnetic data obtained by the arctic explorers Kane, Hays, McClintock, and others. The reports of the superintendents of the coast and geodetic survey contain his writings on hydrography, geodesy, and especially on terrestrial magnetism, a subject to which he has devoted his abilities with eminent success. He is considered an authority on all the subjects alluded to, and notwithstanding his long and unremittent labors is still vigorous, mentally and physically.

The oldest bureau officer of the government, in point of service, taking the broad

meaning of that term, is Mr. A. R. Spofford, librarian of Congress, who was appointed assistant librarian in September, 1861, and in 1864 librarian in chief. When he came to Washington there were only 70,000 volumes in the library. Now there are nearly 800,000 volumes, and the new building, which is considered the finest modern structure in the world, and was planned largely upon his suggestions, has a capacity of 4,500,000. Mr. Spofford probably has the most comprehensive knowledge of books of any man in America. His wonderful capacity to give information is almost supernatural, and the colored messengers about the library are under the impression that he can tell the contents of a book by looking at the covers. Mr. Spofford has achieved an honorable distinction as an author and scholar as well as a librarian. The office of chief librarian of Congress was recently bestowed upon Mr. John Russell Young, Mr. Spofford taking the position of first assistant.

Next in point of service is Sumner I. Kimball, chief of the life-saving service, who first came into the treasury in January, 1862, was appointed chief clerk to the second auditor in 1868, and in 1871 was placed in



SUMNER I. KIMBALL, CHIEF OF THE LIFE-SAVING SERVICE.

charge of the revenue cutter service, which he reorganized upon its present plan. In 1871, when the life-saving service was created, he was appointed chief, and its remarkable record is due to his vigor and ability.

Gen. James A. Dumont, who carries the longest title of any officer in the treasury, supervising inspector-general of steamships,



LIBRARY OF AMBASSADOR JOHN HAY'S RESIDENCE.

was appointed by General Grant on the 24th of November, 1876, a little more than twenty years ago, and will undoubtedly spend the rest of his life in that office. He began his career in navigation on the Hudson River in 1837, as cabin-boy of the sloop *Ranger*, and has since sailed the world over many times, commanding both steam and sail vessels, merchantmen and men-of-war.

Alvey A. Adeë, second assistant secretary of state, and the oracle of the government on diplomatic topics, began his official life on September 9, 1870, as secretary of the legation at Madrid, and has been promoted from time to time until he reached his present position in 1876. Mr. Adeë is the authority of the Department of State on international law and precedents. He always writes that portion of the president's message which relates to foreign affairs, and does the heavy correspondence with our legations abroad.

The members of the diplomatic corps in Washington are very popular in society, and are much sought by the more fashionable sets. Many of them are very agreeable and estimable people, although now and then you hear of a black sheep in the flock—some youngster who has been sent from home to escape the penalty of indiscretion or to make an attempt at reform. Vulgar people make desperate efforts to secure the acquaintance and the attention of the diplomatists, and every woman who gives a ball or a reception is glad to have them as her guests because of their interesting personality and their brilliant court costumes. The reception given annually by the president to the diplomatic corps is the most important social event of the season. It always comes immediately after New Year's day, and the women save their new gowns for that evening.

The army and navy also add greatly to the attractiveness of Washington society, and constitute an important part of the population. It is the ambition of every naval family to have a home at the capital, where they may reside when the husband or father is at sea, and where he may find an

asylum when his name is transferred from the active to the retired list. According to the regulations of the service every officer must spend three years at sea before he can have shore duty or leave of absence, and when this voyage is over he usually seeks a detail in the Navy Department, or at the navy-yard or the observatory, in order that he may enjoy the interval with his family. The wives of army officers may always live in garrison with their husbands in time of peace, but a naval officer must spend more than half his time at sea.

Washington is the haven for retired admirals and generals, and for the widows of deceased officers. You can find a dozen old sea-dogs and battle-scarred veterans at the Army and Navy Club any afternoon, talking over old times and discussing politics. Some naval and army officers are rich. It is considered the duty of rich girls to marry into the service, because the pay of an officer is small, his expenses are large, and he has no opportunity to make money outside of his profession. Many young ladies have obeyed this injunction, which accounts for the fine residences owned and occupied by them in this city. But when their husbands go to sea the navy wives usually rent their fine houses and move into smaller ones as a measure of economy. Some follow their husbands abroad, although the European Squadron moves about so much that it keeps them traveling from port to port. Those who are not well off prefer to have their husbands assigned to the Asiatic Station or the South Atlantic Squadron, because Shanghai, Yokohama, and Montevideo, which are the headquarters, are pleasant and inexpensive places to live, and the ships usually lie there for months at a time.

It is easier for ambitious people to enter what we term fashionable society in Washington than in any other city. The transient population is so large and so cosmopolitan that no questions are asked. The republican court is ever accessible to the sovereigns who rule this country, regardless of dress suits and other conventionalities, and the official circle is a convenient stepping-stone



to more select society. Strangers who have wealth and good manners, and who make themselves agreeable, are admitted on probation, but in Washington, as everywhere else in the animate world, the cream rises to the top in due time, and baser substances find their proper levels. There is the same amount of envy, jealousy, and scandal that makes people unhappy elsewhere, and a relative degree of happiness and contentment. Washington society is as pure as that of any place in the world, and the standard of morals is becoming higher annually. The conduct of both men and women nowadays in official and in private life is much more commendable than it was before the war. Some women are gay and frivolous, no doubt, and men have their faults, but there has been a constant and a permanent improvement in the morals and manners of both. Our fashionable society at this moment would not tolerate habits and vices that were common in the days of Daniel Webster and Henry Clay, and, although there was never so much extravagance in dress and entertainment as now, the churches were never so well filled, there never was so much charity and benevolence, and never less scandal. The country is not going to the dogs. The world is getting better every day, and it is well that the capital of the great republic should take the lead in the movement.

Wealth is quite as necessary to social success from the popular point of view in Washington as in all the large cities of Europe and America, and poverty is quite as inconvenient there as elsewhere. Exceptions are often made in favor of brains and ancestry. Society is divided into sets and cliques on a basis of educational and property qualifications, individual tastes and affiliations. There is a "fast" set, composed of those who have plenty of time and money to spend in sport and frivolity, an "exclusive" set, composed of the highly respectable old residents who do not look with favor upon all the newcomers and their lively ways; the army and navy families are naturally more intimate among them-

selves than with outsiders, because of their many interests in common, and the scientific and literary people exert mutual attractions for similar reasons. "Birds of a feather flock together." Those who would be entertained by others must themselves entertain. Hospitality must be reciprocal, although special indulgences are granted to good-looking bachelors who dance and talk well. This, however, is due to necessity and not to choice. Gentlemen with such accomplishments are scarce in all communities in these days of labor and money grubbing, but people who accept dinners must return them or are dropped from the invitation lists.

Evening receptions are going out of date. Afternoon teas from five to seven are more popular because they are more economical both for the hosts and the guests. The former do not have to spend as much money for music, flowers, lights, and refreshments, while the latter can go in their street clothes and bonnets.

President McKinley intends to introduce some reforms in the social life of the White House which will be very welcome. Hitherto it has been the custom for the president to give four evening receptions which have been so crowded as to impair the enjoyment of the guests, and a series of dinner parties at which the cabinet, the judiciary, the diplomatic corps, the senators, and a few representatives have been invited. They are long, tedious, and stupid, and are dreaded as ordeals and tests of endurance. President McKinley thinks that it would be more agreeable to give more entertainments and not have so many people at each one. This will certainly be an improvement upon the present method. The White House is not well adapted to entertaining. It was built when rooms were lighted with candles and is not suited to the era of electric lights. It has not grown with the population and the importance of the country, or with the power and responsibilities of the man who occupies it, and Congress must sooner or later make appropriations for the erection of a more suitable and commodious building.

## THE TENEMENT-HOUSE REFORM IN NEW YORK CITY.

BY S. PARKES CADMAN.

NEW YORK CITY has recently become by special legislative enactment the second largest city in the world and the first city of the American commonwealth. Honest pride over such a result is justifiable, but there are serious problems attending the right and proper government of this metropolis which forbid any undue exaltation of spirit. The federal census of 1890 and the report of the Tenement-house Committee of 1894 astonished our municipal authorities by showing that New York is the most congested city of the New World, and that it has specified regions of dense population beyond anything in the world—denser even than the cities of Asia and Europe whose municipal life covers a millennium.

The police census of "lesser" New York, as we must now speak of it, showed that there was a population of 1,851,060 within the then legal limits of the city, and that 1,742,985 people lived on Manhattan Island itself. Thus a population equivalent to that of the whole kingdom of Norway is housed upon an area of 13,487.2 acres—less space than that occupied by some of our farms in the West. The density per acre of that part of the city lying south of the Harlem is 129.2, according to the figures of 1895.

Paris follows next with 125.2, and next is Berlin, and next is New York City itself, including the population above the Harlem as well as below it. Following these in their order come Tokyo, Vienna, and inner London. Thus Greater New York starts its career, despite the addition of comparatively tenantless territory, with a larger density of population than Greater London had in 1896. In other words, three millions of people now included within Greater New York will be housed in a space by no means half as large as that occupied by Greater London. And further, this space is not equally crowded. There are black spots in

it where the people are heaped one upon the other, followed by ordinary residential sections, and these again by meadows and stretches of land along the banks of the rivers flowing around the city.

The peculiar geographical situation of New York City accounts in a measure for this density. Built upon a narrow and elongated tongue of land, with the Hudson River upon the west and the East River upon the northeast, the value of real estate has become enormous, and the difficulties attending the problems of rapid transit have made it impossible for multitudes of business men and artisans to seek their homes beyond the island of Manhattan. The population of some of the entire kingdoms of Europe is now crowded into areas far less than the family estate of a European noble. There are, says Dr. Walter Laidlaw, at least seven blocks in New York City containing over three thousand people each, and in one of these blocks no less than thirty languages and dialects are spoken by the inhabitants. The average number of persons to a dwelling is 18.52, while in Philadelphia in 1890 the same average was only 5.60.

And yet another reason for this crowding is the tremendous influx of foreign immigration, especially from Germany, Poland, the countries of the Mediterranean Sea, and Ireland. The emigrants arrive here, find their fellow countrymen established in various parts of the city in colonies where their own language is more often heard than the English tongue, and where the habits and modes of life to which they have always been accustomed have just as free play as upon their native shores. Hence it is difficult to move them beyond the city limits. They fill up our tenement-house districts, they hide away in the basement and in the attic, they crowd already crowded regions.

The congestion becomes really frightful, and for the last twenty years the East Side of New York has steadily declined in the general health and well-being of its inhabitants. Nothing else could be expected when the conditions under which these people live are scientifically understood. The old *régime* which caused the Bowery to be one of the attractive and unique features of metropolitan life has passed away. The hilarity, the rough-and-ready comradery, which made the boys of the Bowery, with their red shirts, stirring patriotism, and volunteer fire-brigades, a useful and in many senses honorable portion of the community, have given place to another phase of life. One walks through that portion of the city to-day and he sees an incessant, hard, bitter struggle for life. The people are sodden with care—dismal, hopeless, and incapable of pleasure.

The diversity of nationality greatly increases the difficulties arising out of this state of affairs. The assimilating powers of the American nation have answered the extraordinary tests imposed upon them remarkably well, but it is undoubted that in this region they have been overtaxed. Nearly fifty per cent of the population of New York in 1890 was foreign born. It exceeded the aggregate of all the foreign born of the cities of Fall River, Duluth, Holyoke, Lawrence, Manchester, Lowell, and San Francisco. And when you add to this percentage the children of foreign parentage as well as those directly foreign born, New York City exceeds in these numbers the entire population of Chicago or of the state of California. The persons living in New York whose parents were foreigners numbered, in 1890, 1,215,463 souls. This heterogeneous mass makes any cultural work difficult to the last degree. All the barriers of caste, racial antipathy, difference of language, and the more formidable lines of cleavage which have sundered far apart the thinking of men, exist in this spot, making it a field for missionary enterprise not exceeded either in value or in obstacles by any mission field of the world.

The Protestant clergy of New York City have found that ordinary church methods, which are more or less successful in other great centers, do not furnish the desired results here, and the whole system of evangelization is undergoing rapid changes in the regions below Fourteenth Street. The mention of such churches as St. George's, the Metropolitan Temple, Hope Chapel, the Judson Memorial, and Washington Square Methodist Episcopal Church will afford to those who know anything of their work an illustration of this renaissance which seeks to convey the entire gospel of the New Testament to the whole life of the communities around.

My present subject is to deal with the work which has been done in bettering the condition of some of these densely crowded spots where crime, disease, and misery had their favorite haunts. Mr. Richard Watson Gilder, whose noble and self-sacrificing toil gives him the right to be first mentioned, was instrumental in calling the attention of the wealthy and educated citizens to the great need for the improved housing of the poor. The names of the ladies and gentlemen upon the council, gathered largely by his devotion and energy, are significant of the higher life of New York City. They include Cyrus Edson, Roger Foster, R. W. Gilder, Solomon Moses, George B. Post, John P. Schuchman, W. d'H. Washington, and Edward Marshall.

The task before these men was enough to appal any save such a chosen band. Their field of operation was in the lowest division of the social strata. It included the drunkard, the incorrigible, the criminal, the immoral, the lazy, and the shiftless. The habitations of these people could not be dignified by the sacred name of home, for not one of the virtues that go to make that name are inculcated, practiced, or even understood. Rather were they shelters than homes, shields against observation, refuges from the pursuit of justice, and coverings of infamy. The ex-superintendent of police declared the tenement-house to be the cog-wheel in the machinery of crime, and, worst of all, the family relation was

lowered until it became the perpetuation of that which was low, vicious, and debased.

The first work of the Tenement-house Committee was to obtain recognition from the legislature of the state. They secured the necessary authorization and began their investigations with indomitable patience and perseverance. Without wading through the evidence, some of which was obtained under peculiar circumstances and at times elicited with difficulty, it is sufficient to say that the Gilder committee established the verdict beyond refutation that the New York tenement-house system was the worst in the world; and further, that in a country which had been justly preeminent for leadership, and in the greatest city of that country, New York, the eye of the New World, a condition of congestion and misery prevailed such as even the older cities of Europe could not parallel.

The investigation was thorough-going and complete. The committee spared no pains to secure ascertained results. In one of its departments they found a population of 255,033, out of which only 306 persons had access to bathrooms in houses in which they lived. Fancy a population larger than that of Providence, R. I., or Newark, N. J., Minneapolis or St. Paul, and only a shade smaller than Washington, with but 306 persons able to take a bath in their own houses!—and at that date there was no such thing as a public bath in New York City.

In another department of investigation the committee found 15,726 families, numbering 67,897 persons, with an average of  $4\frac{1}{3}$  persons to 284.4 square feet of floor area. Some idea of these figures can be obtained by remarking that one room 12x24 contains 288 square feet in floor area.

But statistics give no conception of the dreadful condition of these blind, unventilated, dilapidated, and filth-soaked buildings. The death-rate among children five years of age in these districts ran up to 254.4 per thousand, whereas under favorable conditions it is only 30 per thousand. The bitter cry of outcast New York found its deepest note of suffering in this slaughter of the innocents. The general death-rate

increased three times upon the normal rate in more favored parts of the city. The sanitation of these buildings could not be worse. Their liability to destruction by fire rendered them in many cases mere death-traps.

After the work of investigation was completed the following bills were obtained relative to immediate improvement. First, an act providing for a park at Mulberry Bend, one of the worst spots of the tenement-house district. Scores of these houses were destroyed and a much-needed breathing-place was given for the greatly overcrowded neighborhood. To-day hundreds of happy children are playing, or listening with their parents to the music of the band, upon the very spot where for fully fifty years every crime in the decalogue was committed, and many of them with impunity.

The second bill to become a law provided for the expenditure of three millions of dollars for small parks in that part of the city found to be the most overcrowded district of the New World; viz., the district east of the Bowery and Catherine Street, and south of Fourth Street. These parks must be located and begun within three years. Every one is furnished with a public playground and municipal bath-houses. The matter of locality is now being considered by the board of education, the board of health, and the park board. A further law was enacted with the provision that "hereafter no school shall be constructed in the city of New York without an open-air playground attached to or used in connection with the same." Wherever ground is purchased for new schools additional land must be secured to fulfil the demand of this most wise and salutary measure.

And yet again, content with no half-way proceedings, a fourth law was signed on the 9th of May, 1895, to go into operation on the 1st of June of the same year, which covers quite a number of the questions raised by the committee of investigation. The sanitary inspection of these districts was placed by it upon a much better basis. The Health Department found itself unable to cope with the new work demanded, and

additional force had to be employed that it might do so. More light and air were secured in all buildings erected after this date by raising the height of the ceilings of basements above the street. Since fifty-three per cent of the fires of New York occur in the tenement-houses, which number only thirty-one per cent of its total buildings, rigid safeguards against this evil were enforced upon all existing tenements, and the names of the owners of tenements and lodging-houses have to be filed in the Health Department.

A still more radical departure, which shows that the sacred rights of property are outweighed by the sacred rights of man, was the power given to condemn without hesitation unsanitary buildings. This was a novel and important step based upon English legislation and experience. Whenever in the opinion of the board of health of the city of New York any building, or any part thereof, is likely to cause sickness among its occupants or among the occupants of other property adjoining, or conduces in general to the injury and danger of human health, the board of health may order that building to be removed. Already several of the worst specimens answering this description have been destroyed and replaced by a vastly superior class of dwellings.

It would seem as though legislation sufficient to cover the drastic needs of so hopeless a case had been secured, but the reform did not rest here. The facts to which reference has been made concerning the tenement districts had created a profound impression. So, when the legislation had done its work, private citizens called a mass-meeting of organized labor of New York City to promote better housing. This gathering was held in Cooper Union on May 8, 1896, the Hon. Carroll D. Wright presiding. Among the speakers were Bishop Potter, Dr. W. S. Rainsford, Rev. Father Doyle, Felix Adler, Seth Low, Jacob A. Riis, and Prof. E. R. L. Gould. The specific object of this meeting was to call the attention of the workingmen of New York to the model tenements and suburban

homes which could be brought within the reach of the masses of the city at fair rentals and moderate profits. The names of the advocates showed that the movement was absolutely genuine. The capitalists who made investments in it were satisfied to ask for five per cent as the profit, and up to date this is by far the most promising fruit of this magnificent undertaking commenced by Mr. Gilder and his associates.

Dr. Gould has made himself a widely recognized authority on the housing question. He is the author of the special report of the Commission of Labor on the housing of the poor, recently issued by Colonel Wright's department at Washington. To write this report he spent three years in careful study of the housing question in Europe and America, and he is considered to-day the most complete storehouse of information on this subject. Feeling that I could not do better than secure from him a prospectus of this company, I requested Dr. Gould to furnish me with a prepared statement. This he readily consented to do on condition that it should be withheld until his plans were matured. The time limit he named having elapsed, I am glad to lay the doctor's explicit and worthy plan before the readers of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. It is as follows:

The appearance of the report of the Gilder Commission showing the great need for housing reform in New York City and of the report of Prof. E. R. L. Gould for the United States Department of Labor, giving a most elaborate presentation of the attempts made to improve the living environment of wage-earners in European countries as well as in the United States, stimulated a number of public-spirited gentlemen to attempt a much-needed reform in New York. It was felt that the time was ripe for action and that all the information that was necessary was at hand. Accordingly a conference was organized under the auspices of the Better Dwellings Committee of the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor. It was held in the early part of March last, and resulted in the creation of the Improved Housing Council, of which Mr. R. W. Gilder was named chairman and Dr. W. H. Tolman, general agent of the A. I. C. P., secretary. A complete list of the committees of this Improved Housing Council are enclosed herewith.

The object of the council was to prepare the way



for the creation of a corporation to take up the practical work of housing. Dr. E. R. L. Gould was invited to take general charge of the work of the council and lay out schemes for the practical work to be accomplished. The first step included the organization of a competition for plans of model tenement-houses. This competition was very successful, twenty-eight plans having been submitted. It was held that suburban homes should receive attention, as well as city tenements. It was further felt desirable to interest the better-paid element of wage-earners in the possibility of securing suburban homes for themselves by paying monthly instalments and having their lives insured at the same time. Both items would not be appreciably greater than rent paid for inferior accommodations in the city.

On July 6, 1896, the City and Suburban Homes Company was incorporated at Albany. This is a business corporation organized pursuant to the laws of the state of New York, its object being to offer to capital a safe and permanent five per cent investment and at the same time supply to wage-earners improved wholesome homes at current rates. In its city homes (we prefer this word to "model tenements") it can readily provide from twenty-five to thirty per cent larger rental space for the same money, while furnishing accommodations immeasurably superior from the standpoint of hygiene, comfort, attractiveness, and family isolation.

This company has at present a capital stock of one million dollars, more than nine tenths of which has been subscribed notwithstanding the unfortunate financial conditions prevailing. It will commence to build just as soon as times improve. Setting before itself a business end, it will undoubtedly attract large sums of capital because it offers and can unquestionably pay a five per cent cumulative dividend, besides building up a safe surplus. It is difficult to find an investment equally safe and paying as good a rate. The company expects, therefore, to develop its work until it shall have twenty or twenty-five millions, possibly even more, invested. Humanitarian motives are of course in the minds of the directors of the company and other friends and supporters of its work, but the methods by which the motives are translated into action are commercial. Philanthropy made to pay a substantial dividend contains the elements of indefinite extension.

In commenting upon Dr. Gould's remarks, I would like to observe that the plans for model tenements are before me at this juncture, and the difference between them and the filthy buildings they are intended to supplant is the difference of day and night. They include a building one hundred feet square, with an interior court thirty feet

square, ventilated from the street through the basements, additional light and air being provided by further courts eighteen feet wide by sixty feet deep opening directly from the street. In all these buildings every room opens upon light and air. Every apartment has its private bathroom and laundry tubs. The smallest bedrooms contain seventy square feet of floor area and the smallest living-rooms one hundred and forty-four square feet. Mr. Ware, the architect, has adopted the French plan of a main entrance into the square central court, and the stairways will be fireproof and enclosed in fireproof compartments of brick. "But what are these to cost?" asks some cautious spirit. I would point out that Dr. Gould asserts that the company owning the model tenement can rent it for the same money now paid for slum dwellings, giving from twenty-five to thirty per cent more room, with hygienic and moral comforts so vastly improved that comparisons are impossible.

Another commendable feature in Dr. Gould's plan is what he felicitously terms "philanthropy made to pay a substantial dividend." In this scheme the givers are also the receivers, and the working classes benefited by it pay a just return for the value they obtain. I predict that the work so auspiciously begun through the efforts of Mr. Richard Watson Gilder and those who have assisted him will assume very large dimensions in the early future. The slum dies hard, but the slum most surely has to die. Every clergyman, Christian worker, philanthropist, and humanitarian in New York City needs no further argument to convince him of the necessity of this.

One of the persistent causes for the failure of segmental evangelism in this city is its inability to realize that the conditions of good life are absolutely impossible in many of its regions. The imperial ideals of the Christian Church, so fruitful to those who study the words of Christ in reference to his kingdom and its all-embracing purposes, have been lost sight of by these worthy men, and they are at a loss to understand how it is that society has grown somewhat impatient of their deliverances. As a mat-

ter of fact, the first business of the church of the living God in the squalid districts of New York tenement life is to see that the Sermon on the Mount has a practical exposition in the bettering of the unhappy fortune of the victims of the lower strata. And when every avenue in the way of argument, entreaty, and appeal is closed, the creed of creeds may still be wrought

In loveliness of perfect deeds  
More strong than all poetic thought.

The city which Cain built upon the corpse of his brother Abel, and every stone of it incarnadined with Abel's blood, has been the model city of the grasping, rent-greedy landlord and the conscienceless agents,

grinding out their exactions from the unfortunate brood who lived in their stews. But the city which John saw as the crown and last result of Christian effort is being nobly struggled for in New York to-day. It is not being brought about by poetical dreams or impassioned rhetoric, but by the combination of many different elements which have their common source in the teaching of Jesus; and any man who has known New York City for the past six years, and can realize the vast advance made in that time in every department of its life, will bear testimony that the prospects of its better development are more favorable to-day than ever before.

## PLATO AND HIS REPUBLIC.

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**T**O begin with, Plato's republic is not a republic at all as to its form of government, but an aristocracy of intelligence based on the severest educational qualifications ever dreamed of by a political idealist. It is the ideal organization of the social body that shapes itself in the course of a long and at first apparently desultory conversation between Socrates and a group of interesting people whom he meets on a visit to the Piræus, or seaport of Athens, where he has been attending a religious festival in honor of the goddess Bendis.

In the course of this conversation the question is discussed as to whether virtue is a reality or is merely an artificial convention that has no foundation in the nature of things. Is the good man necessarily happier than the bad? Does it really profit the strong and clever man always to act justly, or do men agree to make believe that this is so from fear of consequences? A sensible, honest man has no need to puzzle himself with such questions in practice, but how to prove to the conviction of the skeptic what our instinct tells us in the matter has always been a chief problem of the ethical philosophers. It was, perhaps, apart from his

metaphysical ideas, which need not detain us here, the central question of philosophy for Plato. The age in which he lived was one of new winds of doctrine blowing from every quarter, and of much shaking of the pillars of the older orthodoxies.

In our own time clever writers are found to maintain in the magazines that if evolution is the key to human origin there is no reason why we should any longer try to be honest and decent. Similarly in Plato's day witty young men argued that if they could not believe all that Homer and Hesiod told about the gods, if, as Anaxagoras taught and Euripides sang, Zeus, the guardian of oaths and protector of the guest, was merely the necessity of nature or the cosmogonical vortex-whirl, they need not deal justly with the stranger within their gates or fear to commit perjury. And others undertook to show that the new philosophic doctrines about the opposition between nature and law relieved them from all obligation of obedience to the artificial conventions of human institution, and left them free to make their blood their direction and appetite their only law.

To Plato this tendency seemed very seri-

ous. And the "Republic" is primarily not a picture of the ideal state, but an attempt to confute the spirit of ethical negation by dialectical demonstration that the just man is necessarily happier than the unjust.

The state is introduced in the second book because the social organism exhibits on a larger scale the virtues and defects of the individual, and we shall perhaps be able to study them to better advantage when thus "writ large." Socrates begins by tracing the development of a typical city. The foundation of society is the helplessness of solitary man. The principle of the division of labor is represented as determining the social constituents of the primitive village or group—the farmer, the carpenter, the cobbler, the tailor, etc. The gradual increase of wants and the rise of luxury still further enlarge and differentiate the population of workingmen, until by a process which Herbert Spencer calls the "multiplication of effects" the original hamlet develops under our eyes into a great and completely organized Greek city.

This principle of division of labor thus casually introduced has far-reaching consequences, and proves to be one of the dominant thoughts of the entire work. It leads to a differentiation of the warrior class, or soldiers, from the industrial class, or producers, and to the demand for a special education for the former. A further differentiation and a course of higher education separates out from the soldiers a class of rulers. Each citizen class is then treated as the embodiment of one of the three faculties of the soul: the rulers of intelligence, the soldiers or guardians of courageous spirit or emotion, the industrial population of appetite and desire. The analogy between the individual body and the body politic is thus perfected. The best-governed state is that in which the wisest rule with the aid of the bravest and most energetic, and the happiest as well as the justest man is he in whose soul the natural sensuous appetites and desires are duly subordinated to disciplined emotions under the supreme control of the higher spiritual reason.

In Plato this conclusion is worked out

through a long and ingenious educational, psychological, and philosophical argument.

The discipline of the soldiers is made the occasion of what Rousseau calls "the best treatise on education in the world." Education is considered under two heads, the training of the mind and heart, or "music," and the training of the body, or "gymnastic." The problem of the educator is to combine the two in just measure, avoiding the opposite extremes of effeminacy and brutality. Under "music" he treats first of the problem which now occupies our kindergartners, the moral and emotional effect of the stories we so recklessly tell our children. He dwells on this the more because thoughtful Greeks had during the preceding century been waking up to the blasphemous immorality of their traditional anthropomorphic mythology. "Such tales as Homer and Hesiod tell about the gods must not be told to our alumni," says Socrates; and in pursuance of his criticism he lays down three canons of sound theology: (1) that God is the author of good only, (2) that God never deceives, (3) that he never changes.

Plato's strictures on Homer's violations of these and other principles of right thinking in religious matters are the chief source of the polemics of the more thoughtful of the Greek Christian fathers against the pagan mythology. But in quest of true principles of education Plato goes beyond the consideration of the mere material content of the teaching to consider its form and spirit. Socrates, anticipating the thought of Wordsworth and Ruskin, argues that the music we hear, the tone, temper, and rhythm of the poetry we read, the esthetic quality of the statues, the pictures, the architecture we contemplate in our daily walk, the aspects of nature that surround our impressionable years, all tend to mold and fashion by silent sympathy our inner spiritual life through the sensuous organism. The true statesman-educator will demand that the silent, daily, cumulative, irresistible pressure of these subtle influences shall conspire for good rather than for evil. Then, and then only, as Socrates beautifully says, "will our youth

dwell in a land of health, amid fair sights and sounds, and receive the good in everything; and beauty, the effluence of fair works, shall flow into the eye and ear like a health-giving breeze from a purer region, and insensibly draw the soul from earliest years into the likeness and sympathy with the beauty of reason."

In developing these thoughts Plato is led to the institution of a rigid censorship over all forms of art and literature and the banishment from his ideal state of the larger part of the existing poetry of Greece as ministering only to the pride of the eye and the lust of life. It is very crude criticism to treat this and other paradoxical propositions of the "Republic" like projects of law on their way through Congress or Parliament. The banishment of the poets is a vivid way of fixing our attention on the irreparable wrong which may be done to the spiritual life of a nation by a licentious and unbridled literature and art. Similarly the communism and the community of wives which are prescribed for the members of the ruling class in the state (and for them only) startle us into facing two great problems which the world has by no means yet solved: the securing of disinterestedness in our rulers and the exercising in the breeding of man some measure of the common sense and scientific forethought that we apply to the breeding of dogs and horses.

There is no space to follow the ingenious psychological discussion in which Socrates elaborates his analogy between the harmony of the three types of population in the state and the three faculties, intelligence, high spirit, and appetite, in the soul. The obvious bearing of this analogy on our original problem is that as the best and happiest state is that in which a due and harmonious subordination of the lower to the higher obtains, so the just and happy man is he the policy of whose soul is governed by a pure monarchy of the higher spiritual reason.

But instead of drawing this inference at once Socrates is launched into a long digression in defense of the paradoxes lightly passed over in the previous discussion.

These paradoxes, which Socrates likens to three great waves of ridicule that threaten to sweep away his argument, are (1) the admission of women on equal terms with men to all the occupations of life, (2) the abolition of conventional marriage in the ruling caste, (3) the government of the state by the philosophers. There is space to speak briefly only of the third point.

By philosophers Plato does not mean metaphysicians or literary fellows. He means a picked body of men chosen from the soldier or guardian class by a long and severe selective discipline in the best learning and science of the day, supplemented by many years of training and testing in practical affairs. He deliberately affirms that we shall never secure good government until we devise some means of putting men of this type in command of the ship of state. The account of the higher education employed to sift out these men from their inferior brethren is full of interesting observations on the science of that age and of pedagogical suggestions that have by no means lost their value yet. In the end Plato finds ordinary language inadequate to the expression of his thought and resorts to symbol. The object of this toilsome discipline, he says, is to exalt these men to the vision of the idea of good, which is to the world of thought what the sun of heaven is to the world of visible things—the source of all existence, life, order, and beauty. We mortals sit like chained prisoners in an underground cavern, and see only the shadows cast on its further wall from objects that flit before artificial lights above its mouth. The higher education loosens these fetters, draws us up and out into a purer air, and reveals to us the light of the sun in heaven.

Very beautiful and suggestive is this imagery. So manifold, indeed, are its suggestions, spiritual and metaphysical, that its more direct and immediate significance for the main argument of the "Republic" has been generally missed. Everything that happens in the world of morals and of action is, if we trace it back to its ultimate cause, the result of somebody's conception

of what is most desirable and best. Institutions, laws, governments—all derive in the last resort from the idea or ideal of good in the mind of some man masterful enough to enforce his idea. Now all these particular ideas or ideals of good run back, or would run back if men consistently thought out their beliefs, to some general conception of the final and total good in human life. And this dominant conception of good, be it obedience to the will of God, the development of character, the greatest happiness of the greatest number, or the survival of the fittest, will for thoughtful men in the end shape and determine all their subordinate and derivative conceptions. It is the sun that warms, illumines, and vivifies the whole world of thought and action for them. And until a man has attained such a dominant, all-informing conception of good he dwells among shadows, he has never seen the real sun, he cannot contemplate the fragmentary parts of his life in their true light and fruitful relation to the whole, he gropes and stumbles among the blind herd, he cannot be a leader and source of light for others.

Plato speaks of this knowledge of the idea of good as a vision; but we must never forget, as the sentimental Platonists always do, that this vision is reached only after a long and laborious discipline in the best scientific thought of the age. This is the meaning for the main argument of the "Republic" of the statement that the philosophers must be our kings and that they must undergo a special higher education in mathematics, mathematical physics, astronomy, and dialectics in order to become worthy to receive the final vision of the good.

We are now ready for the comparison of the "good" state and the "good" man with the unjust state and the unjust man in order to a final decision as to their relative happiness. For the comparison of the two extremes, however, we need the intermediate types. Accordingly, beginning with the ideal state whose government is a monarchy or aristocracy, Plato sketches, parallel to the actual disintegration of the Hellenic society of his time, and in striking anticipa-

tion of the Roman Empire and nineteenth century France, a typical process of degeneracy through timocracy, oligarchy, and ochlocracy to tyranny. Very wonderful is the literary skill that has embodied so much suggestive historical and political speculation in artistic forms, the beauty of which will blind only literal-minded critics to the thought they contain. Very suggestive, too, are the accompanying portraits of individual types—the "oligarchical" man, whose valor is hardening into ferocity and whose principle of honor is degenerating into arrogant self-will and avaricious greed; the democratic type of "young Athens," who has no character at all but is all mankind's epitome, and who in place of a kingly reason to counsel and command elects a new ruling passion every month to preside over the tumultuous mob of his appetites. But for the main ethical argument we need only the tyrant city and the tyrant soul.

Fully to grasp this argument we must recall to mind the mingled feelings of admiration, envy, and hatred which the successful tyrant aroused in a thoughtful Greek—feelings marked at one extreme by the standing epithet "divine," applied to absolute rule in the earlier poets and Euripides, and at the other by the scholium of Harmodius and Aristogiton. In a state of the size and wealth of nineteenth century France, the orgies of Napoleonic luxury sink into insignificance compared with the dangers of Napoleonic policy; but in the smaller Greek state the most striking thing in the tyrant's position was the unlimited license it afforded to unbridled lust and appetite. The tyranny, then, was for Plato an apt figure of the soul in which the desires have thrown off all restraint and grasped the reins of conduct for themselves. And the vivid portrayal of the hell of suspicion and fear thinly covered by the glittering exterior of the tyrant state and man—a picture that deeply impressed the imagination of antiquity and was applied to Cæsar by Cicero and to Tiberius by Tacitus—formed the most suitable transition to the final ethical demonstration that happiness cannot be won by submitting all things to desire.



By way of proof three formal arguments are brought forth. The first is this detailed analogy between the tyrant city and the tyrannical type of soul. The second is the chief argument of John Stuart Mill's utilitarianism. Granting that there are three (or more) types of life, the life of sensuous gratifications, of pride and ambition, and that of intellect and virtue, and that the follower of each will affirm the surpassing happiness of his own, the judgment of the intellectual and virtuous man must be preferred to the others, because he alone has necessarily had experience of the pleasures of all the three.

This argument possessed for Plato probably only a passing dialectical significance. His ethics are really based on the doctrine of the essential worthlessness of pleasure in the ordinary sense. The sensuous satisfactions for which "men gore and rend each other like brutes with hoofs and horns of iron," and from which arise all forms of discord and injustice among them, are proved by our deepest experience to be inherently valueless and illusory. This knowledge it is that produces that voluntary self-effacement at the eager banquet of life which is the first condition of all genuine justice and benevolence to others. "There is little in human life worth the careful zeal of a man," says Plato sadly, "but zealous and careful we needs must be."

But the "Republic" is the work of a great

moral teacher, who is too wise to dwell long upon a thought which, however stimulating it may prove to duly tempered minds, has in its direct enunciation a disheartening sound to the generality of men. His attempted demonstration of the unwisdom of wickedness may ultimately rest upon these minute and curious considerations, but practical human life has other guides than dialectic. And in his closing book he is careful to point out that the original hypothesis, adopted for the sake of argument, of an outwardly successful career of the unjust man in this world is a barren and unreal abstraction. He withdraws what Emerson calls the immense fallacy of the concession that substantial justice is not done here and now. Even in this world the unjust man, however fairly he may start upon the race, is certain to stumble and falter before the goal is reached, and it is the righteous man who wins in the end. And then, unwilling to forego any sanction of right conduct, he rises from the region of dialectic demonstration to the world of faith, aspiration, and trust, and offers us in place of the rejected gross material paradise of Hesiod and the Orphic poets one of those beautiful tales of the after judgment and retribution in which Martineau, who has translated them so beautifully, finds a genuine, if somewhat melancholy and uncertain, anticipation of triumphant Christian hope.

## SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

### THE THREE CROSSES ON CALVARY.

When they were come to the place which is called Calvary, there they crucified him, and the malefactors; one on the right hand, and the other on the left.—*Luke xxiii. 33.*

[*September 5.*]

THERE is a twofold solemnity which belongs to the dying hour. It is the winding up of life and it is the commencement of eternity.

It is the winding up of life; life then becomes intelligible. Most of us go through

this life scarcely seeming what we are. One wraps himself up in coldness, another in half hypocrisy; but when it comes to the last, the whole is wound up, and death lays a hand so violent upon the frame that the mask falls suddenly off.

Again, it is the commencement of eternity; for in a short time the body of the dying man will pass away, and his soul will be in possession of that secret which we are toiling all our lives to find. And the solemnity of the thought that he will soon

be in possession of that secret communicates itself in a degree to those around him. It is this which gives importance and solemnity to the dying hour even of the meanest. Around his bed the great and powerful will come as if to read in his countenance the secrets of their own mortality. It is this which gives even to the dying hour of the suicide something of importance. The veriest trifler that ever fluttered through this awful world of God's commands for one hour at least the world's attention.

It is these two thoughts which make the dying hour so solemn; and a threefold portion of this interest belongs to the scene of Calvary. Upon this mount three crosses stood. Generally our attention is fixed only upon one, but it becomes us to remember that there were three, and that upon each a human soul was breathed away. From each there is its own peculiar lesson to be gathered.

Here, then, there is opened for us a subject for contemplation, dividing itself into three branches: first, the dying hour of devotedness; secondly, the dying hour of impenitence and hardness, and thirdly, the dying hour of penitence.

First we look at the central cross. On that cross of Christ there was that transacted which never can be exhibited in any dying hour of ours. There was exhibited the grandest expression of that greatest law of ours—that law according to which life cannot be, except through death. But it is not on this, the atonement, that we dwell now; we look upon Jesus now simply as a dying man, and the first lesson that we learn is the conquest of suffering.

He was as much bound to perform the law of God as the meanest creature upon earth. He was as much subject to the law of suffering as we are; there was a work to be done upon his own soul, and of him in his private, and not in his public, capacity was it said that "the captain of our salvation was made perfect through suffering." This it is which throws so much force on those inspired words, "He became obedient even to the death of the cross." It was not

death alone, but death through the cross. The work of the Savior's soul would have been left imperfect if one single drop of agony had been left untasted; and this seems to be shown by his refusing the mixture of gall and myrrh offered to him in order to dull his sufferings, for it is written that "after he had tasted thereof he would not drink." He knew the strength and blessedness of suffering, and would not meet his death without intensely feeling it. He would bear all; he would suffer all; the Father had put into his hand the cup to drink, and he had, as it were, carried that cup, though brimful of agony, to his lips, with a hand so steady that not one drop of all its sufferings trickled down.

[September 12.]

HERE is a lesson for us. Part of our obedience and work here on earth is to be done in vigor and in health; part, when laid aside in suffering. Much of this must be intelligible to us here. There is not one present who will not some day exchange the vigor of life for a broken constitution and a suffering frame. No one can know what suffering is till he has known mental torture; no one can know the extremity of corporeal suffering till, like his Master, he has counted the long hours of torture one by one, and through night after night has heard the clock strike, in protracted anguish. That is what we are called upon to endure, and then often it is that fretfulness and impatience break across our souls, and we wish that the whole of our future could be concentrated into one sharp hour. Brethren, a man's work is not done upon earth, so long as God has anything for him to suffer; the greatest of our victories is to be won in passive endurance; in humbleness, in reliance, and in trust we are to learn to be still and know that he is God.

In the next place, we learn from that dying hour the influence of personal holiness. The Son of Man came not to the cross to preach, but to suffer; yet in that hour two at least were added to the church, two at least were enrolled in the number of those that shall be saved hereafter.

When God threw Christianity down upon

the world to win her way through almost insuperable impediments, the weapon which he put into her hand, the only weapon, was the talent and eloquence of a life of holiness. Brethren, let the distinction be drawn between the life of holiness and the life of mere blamelessness. Blamelessness and accuracy are beautiful to look upon, but they do not save the soul. The world has enlisted into her service the power of talent and eloquence, but these are not the things that lead to God. Men listen to your talent and your eloquence, and recognize the power of your influence; but they know that all you say may be unreal and unfelt, and, therefore, they come merely as looking upon a picture, and admire, but nothing further. It is not this, it is the divine, mysterious power of holiness that tells upon the world.

What these two men saw upon the cross was different from what they had ever seen before. And in the one case contempt was softened into adoration, "Truly this man was the Son of God"; in the other case hardness was changed into adoring love, "This man hath done nothing amiss." Now, what was it that produced this change? It was not the courage, for thousands had died upon the cross before. And if they wanted recklessness, they had but to turn to the other cross, where was one dying bravely enough, but where was none of the marvelous meekness that was seen on the center cross, none of those words of infinite tenderness, "Father, forgive them, they know not what they do"; there was a recklessness there which enabled him to meet pain with defiance, but none of those words of meekness and trust, "Father into thy hands I commend my spirit."

Brethren, it is not talent, nor power, nor gifts that do the work of God, but it is that which lies within the power of the humblest; it is the simple, earnest life led with Christ in God.

[September 19.]

WE are now, secondly, to consider the lesson which comes from the dying hour of impenitence.

Round the cross of the dying thief were

accumulated such means as never before met together to bring a man to God. He had felt the power of pain, that power which is often exerted in the soul to soften it. He had heard the truth preached by one recently converted, and we all know the intensity and earnestness of fresh love; preached also by a dying man, whose words are generally received with a kind of veneration, or at least attention. There was one beside that cross, moreover, a teacher such as no other man had ever had in his dying hour. And yet, with all these means and advantages, there was nothing but a soul steeled against the truth.

Brethren, the lesson we learn from this is the improbability of a late repentance. There are some men not looking for anything of the kind, but desperately looking forward to certain ruin hereafter, who can receive the announcement of approaching misery even with calmness. But this is not the feeling of most men toward death. The oldest among us here thinks there is yet space enough between him and death for a work still to be done; the day is to come when his present pursuits will be given up, and the things of this world exchanged for the care of his immortal soul; that which he loves now, he thinks he shall hate then, forgetting that what is pleasant now will be pleasant to the last. And this is what, more or less, we are all doing; there is not one of us who can lay his hand upon his heart and say, "I have given up all; I am living now as I should wish to die."

Now, let us endeavor to remember some of the arguments which make a future change improbable. The first argument is this, that there comes a dulness and rigidity of the intellect as life goes on; in the old man's mind channels cut themselves—channels through which thoughts flow; the opinions of the man become fixed; rarely does a man change his opinions after forty years of age. And then add to this the feeling of insecurity which comes from trembling between life and death, the agitation which comes with the dying hour. The probability of repentance is thus removed to a distance almost infinite. For

either delirium comes, or else sharp, acute pain which dissipates the faculties.

Even looking at it intellectually, it becomes improbable. The dying thief had lived for years with the prejudice that Jesus was an impostor, and then, when racked in torture, was not in a state in which to change his opinions. As he had lived, so he died.

Again, the improbability of this change arises from the fixing of the affections. All life long this man had lived with his affections fixed on earth; this is the secret of that expression with which he taunted his Redeemer: "If thou be Christ, save thyself and us." Life is all he asks; if he could not save his life, all other salvation to him seemed useless. Brethren, grant it for one moment that reason should remain at the last steady to judge of the question then before us, yet this were not enough; even if a man could hear the spade hollowing out his grave, and could look upon the coffin-lid with his own name engraved thereon, with the date of birth and the date of death, there might be much in this to disengage his heart from earth, but would there be in it one element to fasten his soul on holiness?

Lastly, there is an improbability of change in the deadening of the conscience. There was an appeal made to the conscience of the dying thief, but made in vain: "Dost thou not fear God, seeing thou art in the same condemnation?" It was made in vain, because his conscience was in a state of deadness. We find it written that God hardened Pharaoh's heart. It is the greatest evil, and worst penalty of doing wrong, that at last a man ceases to distinguish right from wrong.

This was the state in which this man was; and oh! I pray you to remember that toward this state we all are hastening who are hardening our hearts. If there be one among us doing that, putting off the time of repentance to a more convenient season, let him remember that there are two questions to be asked: whether it is likely that the change would come and whether there is anything in pain that will make holiness more lovely and more dear. And if, in defiance of all

experience, he answer in the affirmative, then there is another question—whether God will be trifled with so long, whether he will suffer a man to go on enjoying life until he has no fresh emotion left, and then will be permitted to give the dregs of a polluted life and a worn-out heart to the God whom he despised all life long.

My young brethren, now, while emotion is fresh and your affections are worth the having, before the time comes when you are worn and weary, "remember your Creator in the days of your youth."

[September 26.]

WE turn now to consider the dying hour of penitence. We have said that repentance at the last is a thing improbable. Blessed be God, it is not a thing impossible. It has been well said that there has been one instance of a late repentance given us in order that none may despair, and but one that none may presume. The penitent thief expressed his sense of guilt in these words: "We suffer justly the due reward of our deeds." We can lay down no rules for the amount of grief and sorrow; to do so would be as absurd and futile as to lay down laws as to how often a forgiving spirit might pardon an offending brother. There can be no law here, for it is decided by many things—by age, by sex, and by constitution.

We believe that the Church of Rome has erred in substituting penance for penitence; and yet here Rome has in her way expressed a truth, that the natural result of great sin will be the expression of great grief. Perhaps we in our Protestantism have erred in making the way to holiness after sin unnaturally easy. We present a few doctrines to the soul, and then, on the acceptance of a few intellectual truths, it is expected that the great sinner will become the great saint, without a tear of agony for the past. Great nature refuses to be thus trifled with. In God's dealing with the soul there is something analogous with the cure of wounds. When the cut is deep and the blood flows freely, its first effect is to close the wound by its coagulation. So it is with grief; if it is allowed to flow freely,

the wound may soon be healed ; but if, instead of grief and sorrow, we expect a few doctrines to do the work alone, then we shall soon see the blood break forth afresh.

We also remark here the penitent's zeal for Christ ; he spoke as if he himself had been offended, "Dost thou not fear God?" We talk much of toleration ; if we mean by that a generous sympathy with the different forms of opinion, then it is Christian ; if toleration mean compassion for frailty, and a willingness ever to make a distinction between tempted weakness and deliberate evil, then toleration is nothing more than another name for the mind of Christ. But if it mean that we are to reckon one form of opinion as good as another, and look upon sin merely as a disease against which we cannot feel indignation, then most unquestionably Christianity has in it no toleration. And I remark that zeal, even though it exceed the bounds of righteousness, is a more hopeful thing than lukewarmness. Better far to be like the Apostle Paul before he was an apostle, better to be like the Sons of Thunder, better to be like the ancient prophets using the stern language of denunciation, than like Pilate, unconcerned as to the fate of his prisoner so long as he himself was absolved from blame. In the former case the persecuting Saul became the large-minded Paul, the most liberal and the noblest of all spirits that have been given to man ; and the Son of Thunder became the Apostle of Love. Years and experience will by degrees soften zeal into love, but there is no remedy for lukewarmness.

Moreover, we observe in the dying hour of the penitent thief the missionary spirit of doing good. One opportunity only of doing good was given him, and he used it with all his heart.

If we were asked what mark distinguishes Christianity from the world our reply would be, charity. It is not faith, for the religion of Jesus has faith in common with other religions ; but it is charity. "By this," says

our Master, "shall all men know that ye are my disciples, if ye have love one to another." The man of love may be guilty of many blunders of doctrine, while cold-hearted men may always be intellectually right ; but in the last great day love will be recognized as the one thing needful. The faults of the men of love shall soon disappear in the Redeemer's blood, and leave nothing there save the love of one who loveth much because much has been forgiven.

In conclusion we make two remarks :

First, that the intermediate state is not a state of unconsciousness. Christianity thus differs from Judaism ; for Judaism spake of the grave as dark, the place where the dead praise not God, while the New Testament speaks distinctly of a state of consciousness, for in the parable of Dives and Lazarus the rich man is represented as fully conscious in the world beyond of the condition of his sinful brethren. The Apostle Paul, too, longs to depart that he may be with Christ —another proof that the grave is not unconsciousness. And, in addition, we have the example of the dying thief now before us, to whom our blessed Lord says, "To-day shalt thou be with me in paradise."

And, secondly, we learn from this the completeness of the sacrifice of Christ. Some have so mistaken the meaning of their Master's death as to believe that, when the soul has departed from the body, there is still a penal fire to finish the Savior's work. But look at the dying thief forgiven by his Lord. Up to that time he had done nothing to make himself meet for glory, after his conversion he could do nothing ; and yet, forgiven and redeemed upon the cross, he passed straight to paradise.

My Christian brethren, we set this truth before you : "Ye are complete in Christ." He reconciled God to man ; our work is therefore to become reconciled to God. To him that is in Christ there remains neither speck nor spot to be imputed. — *Rev. Frederick W. Robertson, M.A.*



## A GENTLEMAN OF DIXIE.

BY ELLEN CLAIRE CAMPBELL.

### CHAPTER IV.

#### A SHIFTING KALEIDOSCOPE.

A ROUND of gaieties followed the return of Edith, the Seddons, and other young people of the neighboring gentry. There were picnics by day and parties by night; but the entertainment of highest renown and most truly representative of the South was the twelve-o'clock dinner, where the guests were expected to arrive between ten and eleven and to remain till the late afternoon.

Mrs. Dupey was a notable housewife, and after several weeks of merrymaking she invited her immediate circle of friends to dinner. To the inexpert it seemed that absolutely nothing was wanting to the feast: smell, sight, and taste were ravished and sated. But Mrs. Chester was a connoisseur that judged a dinner by as inexorable rules as a master artist would a painting. Yes, it was delightfully prepared, but—the chicken might have been a shade less brown, the mayonnaise a trifle smoother, the coffee—well, perhaps that could not be improved on, but certainly another kind of meat would not have been superfluous—a saddle of mutton, for instance, though Mr. Dupey's mutton never seemed as juicy as hers. Ah! she had an idea!

Mrs. Chester was the first to suggest departure. As she rose to leave she said with her most winning smile:

"Mrs. Dupey, I should like so much to prolong this delightful day that I ask you and all your guests to spend day after to-morrow with me. Don't expect such a banquet as you gave us, for I have but a day in which to get up the dinner; I only promise you will not get hungry. Mr. Mayhew, I shall accept no excuse. Evelyn, all of you be sure to come."

On their way home Edith asked:

"Mamma, why did you not wait till next week?"

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"I wish to show what wonders I can accomplish in a day. Besides, in so short a time no one will fail to compare my dinner and Mrs. Dupey's."

"Isn't that a poor return for her hospitality?"

"Certainly not; she would beat me if she could," and the mistress of The Oaks beamed complacently at her reflection in the carriage window.

Oh, blissful self-satisfaction! what apostrophes should be dedicated to thee, the rarest and luckiest of gifts! Under thy cheering agency the veriest bumpkin may deem himself a Beau Brummell, the dastard a hero, the dullard a wit, the pauper a Diogenes, the mother of graceless younglings a Cornelia, the selfish a martyr. By thee all is condoned, palliated, extenuated, justified. In short, thou suppliest whatever we lack, or else raisest us to such heights that we affect to despise what the gods have withheld.

"Mary had mischief in her eye when she invited us to dinner," said Colonel Seddon to his wife. "Take my word for it, she planned the whole affair to outdo Mrs. Dupey. Promise we shall not get hungry! She will give us dishes fit for a king."

Nor was he mistaken. Where is the famous hostelry or the chef of royal income who could rival that dinner? The odors steaming from it would tempt a fairy past resistance to become a mortal, or make an epicure turn in his grave. The old negresses did not know a principle of chemistry or a new-fangled notion of cookery, yet under their mistress' guidance they produced marvels of toothsome-ness not exceeded in a kitchen of the world.

All—even Mrs. Dupey, with a generous unselfishness that belied Mrs. Chester's criticism—heaped praise upon the hostess, who received the compliments with a forced unconsciousness that deceived no one.

"Cousin Mary, you can beat the world on dinners," said Ned heartily.

"Why, Ned, how can you say so when you are just home from Virginia? Surely you are not comparing my poor little attempts with the dinners you had there. Now when I lived at Richmond—"

"Upon my life, madam," interrupted Mr. Dupey, there is not a cook in the Old Dominion can equal you. Only to you and Mrs. Seddon will I yield the palm over my wife. Would it be possible to persuade you to select some likely young girl and have her trained in your kitchen for us? I will pay you handsomely for her—twice as much as she would bring under other circumstances. What do you say to it, wife?"

"I should be delighted. Maria is getting rather old to have entire charge of the kitchen."

Max tried his best to catch Edith's eye, but she resolutely avoided him. Nevertheless she gave a little shiver at the thought of subjecting one of their darkies to Mr. Dupey's inhumanity.

Evidently Mrs. Chester was vexed with no such scruples; she tossed her head with every mark of gratification, saying:

"La! Mr. Dupey, how you flatter me! I warn you all my head will be quite turned if you don't quit saying such nice things to me and about me. Hardly a day passes that somebody doesn't pay me a splendid compliment. Suppose you send me one of your own girls to train. Adolphus, your poor dear father used to say I had positive genius for taking a raw servant and turning her out in a little while perfectly fitted for her position."

But Adolphus was still engaged with the weighty matter of dining and could not waste time in reply. The amount of food he consumed that week defied computation, and proved that anatomists in estimating the size of the human stomach had never measured one like his. He looked like a gorged boa-constrictor when he left his mother's dinner-table, sighing because such an abundance of food remained uneaten.

The only unhappy one of the party was Max. The few weeks intervening since his

return had been full of bliss; he had been with Edith constantly, and though he had not openly declared the love which every day grew fiercer and stronger, as the charms of her young womanhood disclosed themselves, he had revealed it in all the delicate ways known to the lover and she had not objected. But to-day her demeanor had so changed that even her greeting chilled him. He could not define the difference, but there was a repellent stateliness and courtesy in her manner. George Dupey held the favored place; he sat by her at dinner, waiting on her with a gallantry not even his father could have excelled; and immediately after they returned to the parlor he coaxed her to the piano, where she sat idly running her hands over the keys and smiling up into his face in a way that almost drove Max to a frenzy. He upbraided himself for caring about Edith, whom he denounced as a heartless coquette, and anathematized George just as George had him on a former occasion. But what cared Dupey? After a month's exile he had returned to paradise.

Max could not endure the sight many minutes, and strode from the room in the direction of the front porch, where the other gentlemen were smoking. But when he reached the hall door he heard Adolphus say with the wheezy pomposity that befitted his corpulence:

"Don't show hospitality to such a fellow, Cousin John. He's nothing but a dirty abolitionist!"

"Conceited ass!" muttered Max.

Clearly the situation out of doors was no more congenial than within. Turning, he went to the rear porch and threw himself upon a seat. Here Nell found him, and mistrusting with her sensitive little heart that something was amiss, she showed her sympathy in the only possible way: she seized his hands and begged him to walk about the yard with her. After they had tired of straying among the trees he lay in the grass pretending to sleep, while she solicitously fanned away the flies; and when she succumbed to sunshine and drowsiness and sank to sleep beside him,

he just as carefully watched and cared for her. Thus he finished out that wretched day.

If he could have looked into Edith's heart he would not have been so desolate. Miss Chester, among her numerous attributes and graces, possessed a will of her own, and that very morning, on over-hearing her mother and Adolphus plan her future, her indignation had burned high. She would marry Max, of course, they said, and Max was altogether the best catch in the county. But just as they had settled matters to their satisfaction, in walked the subject of the discussion, with very rosy cheeks, and after thanking them for their interest in her welfare suggested that she purposed making her own plans, and had not nearly decided whom she would select for her husband.

Mrs. Chester, who stood in wonderful awe of her daughter when she wore that look of resolution, had not the hardihood to resist; but Adolphus, assuming older-brother airs, ventured to exercise an authority he did not possess and could not enforce. The upshot of it was, Miss Edith strongly intimated she would not marry Mr. Maxwell Seddon if he were the only man alive, and maintained her threat with the bold front we have seen, not only during this one day but for weeks and months succeeding.

Meantime, while Edith was playing the siren to George, and Max was tearing his hair in desperation, the conversation of which he had heard but a fragment was in progress on the veranda. Mr. Mayhew began it by saying:

"Colonel, have you met Richard Allyn, the young lawyer who has recently moved from the East to Jefferson?"

"Yes, I was introduced to him the other day in town, and was most agreeably impressed with his appearance, though I didn't talk with him enough to decide further."

"Well, he is the finest young fellow I have met for many a day, although he is right from the hotbed of detestable isms, abolitionism—as taught there—included."

"Do you mean the newcomer who has

his office over Wright's store and walks with a decided limp?" questioned Mr. Dupey.

"Yes, the very one; he and his wife were at service last Sabbath. His lameness is caused by rheumatism, and it was in search of a milder climate that he came—"

Adolphus' meditations had been gathering form and could no longer be restrained.

"I have heard all I care to of the fellow. He is black as the ace of spades on the slavery question."

"My opinion exactly," corroborated Mr. Dupey. "I haven't met him and admit his appearance is prepossessing, as John says, but when some of his rank speeches were repeated to me I didn't care to make his acquaintance."

"You are wrong, entirely wrong," the pastor answered warmly; "the man holds opinions diverse from ours, of course—it could not be otherwise with his rearing—but he is not an extremist, any more than Max. He is an enthusiastic patriot, but exceedingly fair for these radical times. All must acknowledge that we southerners talk extravagantly, so he may have been irritated into a wild statement concerning secession, which I do not doubt he abhors."

"Then I abhor him; I am a secessionist *per se*!" cried Ned, who had listened silently but intently.

"Hush, Ned," the father chided mildly. "You are too young to hold such pronounced views. Heaven grant that we need not resort to secession to defend ourselves! Go on, Mr. Mayhew, tell us something more of your new acquaintance."

"I learned that he was of our denomination, and called on him and his wife, and they signified a desire to unite with us. I very much wish—"

"Mr. Mayhew," cried Mr. Dupey anxiously, "I beg you will not be hasty; the times are too perilous. In receiving such a man into our church we might be harboring a viper."

"Of course I have nothing to say about it," added Adolphus, "but to renounce slavery is to doubt the Bible. A man can't be a Christian and not believe in slavery."

The pastor turned an appealing glance toward Colonel Seddon, who promptly came to his rescue.

"Adolphus, no one could acquit you of extreme views. All of us can decide more intelligently after we know the gentleman in question better, so I suggest, Mr. Mayhew, that I invite the present company and Mr. and Mrs. Allyn to dine in a week or so. I think my confidence in his ability to stand the ordeal justifies me in putting a guest on trial that way. Mr. Allyn is one of us in refinement and culture and holds credentials of membership in our church; let us accord him courteous treatment—let us be magnanimous and receive him as we should wish others to receive us, were the tables turned. At least we should not compromise our pastor by failing to support him in his advances to this stranger."

And yet in spite of such an appeal, or rather in answer to it, Adolphus made the speech which drove Max into the yard. The average southerner of *ante-bellum* days had as confirmed an impression of the savagery of Yankeedom as has the average Bostonian to-day of the West, though for a different reason: the first was the old antagonism of Cavalier and Roundhead reenacted on republican soil.

But Colonel Seddon could not be moved from his amiable purpose, and after the discussion of a suitable time with his wife the invitation was duly issued and promptly accepted. This invitation laid the basis of a friendship between the master and the ardent Unionist which not even the storms of the succeeding years could sever; nay, which those storms but strengthened, for they afforded opportunity to the younger man to return with usury the kindness received when his need was greatest. And not only was the master captivated, but the others as well, even Adolphus unwillingly assenting that Mrs. Allyn was a lady, and her husband—"well, not so bad for a Yankee"; while between the young lawyer and Max an irresistible affinity was mutually recognized. To the one this friendship was a stay and an inspiration; to the other, each day more hopelessly in love

and more desperate of success, each day widening the division between him and his countrymen, it was a blessed solace and a real delight.

The impression made on the Allyn's may be learned from their conversation on the drive back to town.

"What do you think of our new acquaintances?" Mr. Allyn asked almost before they were out of ear-shot.

"They are the nicest people I ever saw. I am in love with every one of them, the colonel especially," replied his wife.

"Even Mr. Adolphus Chester?"

"No! no! I draw the line at him, though his mother spent an hour trying to convince me that he is the handsomest, most talented, and most amiable of the male sex. But he fails to shine in comparison with such splendid specimens of manhood as the Seddons."

"You are growing eloquent in your praise. What of Miss Chester?"

"She is peerless—as lovely as that young Mr. Dupey seems to think. And if I am not much mistaken the colonel's brother is shot with a dart from the same quiver; I happened to glance at him while she was singing, and his face revealed volumes. Did you ever hear such a voice? But I would rather hear her talk than sing."

"She does both so well it is hard to say which is preferable—whichever she is doing at the moment, I suppose. But I admire Mrs. Seddon equally as much, though in a different way. She seems the embodiment of kindness."

"She is. You can't think how tender and motherly she was with me because I am so far from my own mother. But to know how really kind she is you must see her among her servants. While you were walking about the grounds with the host she took me to visit the negro quarters, as I said I had never seen such a habitation. There she was queen and mother as well as mistress. One of the piccaninnies is sick, and I found from the darkies' talk that she had been sitting up with it, and she was as careful in her directions to its mother as though it were her own little girl.

It's all so different from what I thought. This visit has almost converted me to slavery."

"You saw only the gilded side. If all slaveholders were like Colonel Seddon and his wife—the supposition is futile—too many other questions are associated with slavery; kind treatment is not all."

"Well, my next letter East will be interesting! To think that we have dined at a real southern home with a real southern gentleman! It will take pages to describe the house and the dinner and the people. It is an experience worth treasuring."

## CHAPTER V.

### MULTUM IN PARVO.

It could not be expected that a gentleman of Mr. Silas Wire's temperament would forget his vengeance against Job. The longer he nursed his wrath the more deadly it became. If Job, instead of being relieved from field labor, had been under the overseer's direct control, excuse for swift punishment could easily have been found; yet this very immunity from the duties of the other slaves, though it saved him for the time, but aggravated his peril. For the master's chosen factotum could look down from his elevation of trust upon the less favored, and even the overseer came in for his share of contempt; nor was it only because the latter was regarded as "po' white trash," but from an unconscious conviction, born of the instinct which makes the negro a keen judge of human nature, that he was unworthy of respect. Not that Job gave open sign of this, except in failing to render the cringing servility demanded, but the overseer realized it, especially after his wife's complaint.

Thus unwittingly and in perfect innocence the slave added insult to insult, all laid up against the day of reckoning. Finally it came. It would have come sooner if, in spite of Mrs. Wire's querulous urging, her husband had not chosen to wait for an ostensible cause.

One day late in summer, not long before Ned must return to college, he had gone to the creek fishing, taking Job with him.

They became separated, and Wire, following a by-path on some errand about the farm, came upon Job alone. The spot was secluded, the banks of the creek were lined with tall trees and dense underbrush that shut off the view, and the overseer, in his delight at this opportunity, could hardly restrain his eagerness. But even then the dictates of prudence prevailed, and he said angrily:

"You lazy devil! Get home to work at once or I'll break your miserable head!"

In honest amazement Job turned and looked at him. Rather slow of speech and understanding, he did not immediately comprehend the full import of such extraordinary words. He had no thought of disobedience; accustomed all his life to compliance with a white man's orders, and sprung of a race whose spirit of resistance had been crushed by centuries of servitude, he would have gone at once. But that instant's hesitation gave Wire his excuse. In one moment he had leaped from his horse, had knocked Job down, and was plying his cowhide with the fury of a madman. The stinging lash cut deep gashes in Job's flesh, and the agonizing pain made him yell lustily for his young master.

Ned did not hear him at once, but walking leisurely along the stream, whipping it with his rod, at last the appeal reached him. Thinking Job had fallen in the water, he ran to the spot as fast as his legs could carry him.

Meanwhile there had been a spectator of the whole affair. Nell, ever at her brother's heels, had come down to the creek to fish with him, and had reached the place where Job was just as the overseer came in sight. Instinctively she dreaded the man and paused behind a clump of hazelnut bushes till he should pass on. Thus she heard his rough command and saw the blows, every stroke punctuated with an oath, rain upon the prostrate figure. Transfixed with horror, she could not move till Job cried for mercy; then she ran with flying feet to the house for her father.

"Oh, father! hurry! hurry! Mr. Wire is killing Job. Oh, father!"



Breathless and crying she seized him by the hand, but he needed no entreaty.

"Job!" he exclaimed, "what has Wire to do with Job?"

They found Ned in high words with the overseer, who was defiant enough to pounce upon the young master himself. Job, cut and bleeding and nearly fainting with pain, lay on the ground behind the shelter of Ned's willing fists. He was so thoroughly intimidated that he had returned only an appealing glance to the boy's hurried questions and exclamations of compassion.

"What does this mean?" asked Colonel Seddon, addressing his son.

"I don't know, father. I heard Job call for help; when I reached here I found this brute beating him to death. I honestly believe he would have killed him if no one had come."

"What have you to say, Mr. Wire?" continued the colonel. His face was white with anger, and his tense voice threatened at every word to break from his restraint.

"I'll be blamed if I'll stand bein' took up so for beatin' a low-down nigger! I didn't know anybody was with him, so when I come up an' seen him I thought he was lazin' away his time—he's the laziest hound on the place anyways. Then I told him to go home an' he sassed me."

"You wicked man!" cried Nell. "You've told a story. Father, Job didn't say a word—he didn't have time."

Under the protection of the master's presence Job was reviving, and now, still further encouraged by these fearless words, he said:

"'Fo' Gord, mahsteh, Missy Nell speak de truf. I neber say er wud to dat man; he jes' pitch on me 'fo' I know what he wan' me t' do."

With Colonel Seddon, to purpose was to act; he wasted no time in fruitless deliberation.

"You may go," he said. "Leave to-night. I believe we stand about even, but I will give you a month's wages. Call at Wright's; you will find it there."

He turned as if through with the subject, but the overseer, infuriated at his dismissal,

could afford to throw aside his mask and parade his insolence.

"I'm blamed glad to quit. You've got too big opinion of yourself to suit me; I won't work for no such uppish muck-a-muck. But you'll be took down! You ain't goin' to have your niggers forever; then Humpty-Dumpty 'll get a fall that 'll break his big head—"

"By Jove!" exclaimed the colonel, "I'd thrash you if you were a gentleman. Stop, Ned! gentlemen don't soil their hands with such creatures."

Ned still glowered, and Wire, in fear that the master's resolution might falter, hurried away. When he had gone nearly out of hearing distance Colonel Seddon called:

"Wait! You may leave your wife and child at your cottage a few days till you can find a place to take them."

"Why, father!" cried Ned indignantly.

"My son, they are innocent and ought not to suffer with the guilty. I couldn't sleep to-night unless I knew they had a roof over their heads."

Job was tenderly helped to his feet, even little Nell giving a boost; then Ned assisted him home and turned him over to Mrs. Seddon's gentle ministrations.

Mrs. Wire greeted her husband's announcement of his discharge with a torrent of tears and reproaches.

"Oh, Siley, what air we go'n' to do? You know how awful pore we wus before we come here."

"Don't snivel," answered her gracious lord. "I'll get somethin' to do. I've told you these three months there's go'n' to be a war, and when it comes it'll find Silas Wire with his plans all laid. I reckon it'll give a heap of us a chance to even up matters a little."

But his wife was inconsolable. "Leave to-day!" she moaned, rocking herself to and fro. "Dear Lord! where will little Sile sleep to-night? I wish I wus back in Kansas!"

"An' so do I!" he roared. "You don't have to leave to-day; nor Sile neither. Never give me no peace till I thrashed that nigger, an' now whine like a calf!"

So Mrs. Wire and young Silas made use of the master's generosity, but of gratitude—well, he expected none and was not disappointed.

## CHAPTER VI.

## HOPE!

GEORGE DUPEY was not slow in pressing his supposed advantage with Edith. Few days passed without his contriving to see her. In the morning he would ride over to The Oaks with a basket of choice fruit or a rare vegetable for Mrs. Chester; in the afternoon he came on any or no excuse whatever. The ladies insisted that he troubled himself unduly about their tastes and comfort. He smiled; trouble! he would have transplanted every tree on his father's farm if that would have brought him Edith's favor. The least bit of interesting neighborhood news, the progress of the presidential campaign, the last or next social event—anything that could furnish him opportunity found him turned in her direction. Sometimes he would say, "It was so unbearably hot at home I came here; it is always cool here." And after the autumn left him no plea of that kind he would come to play chess with Adolphus. Not that he had love or skill for chess—no indeed! he had thought it the most tedious of games; but Adolphus delighted in it if he won, and after a time George grew into an affectionate gratitude toward the chessmen because of their association with Edith.

Once he begged her to play with him, but she, with feminine tact, knowing the peril of such *tete-a-tete* opportunities, declared she was a beginner and would not show her ignorance. She offered to sing instead, and betook herself to the piano, where she sang song after song of such bewitching strains that George lost his head entirely, and Adolphus quit the game convinced that he was the world's champion.

When Edith gave Dupey her hand at parting he could not forbear saying:

"I am glad you did not play chess; I would not have you do anything but what you did do. Oh, Edith! my love! my love!"

Before she could anticipate his design

he had pressed his lips to her hand in the fondest devotion. Not even her abrupt good-night could calm the delirium that swept his breast. It was the nearest he had ever come to a proposal; twenty times he had been on the point of one, but twenty times she had thwarted his attempt.

"Ah, ha!" said Miss Edith to herself in her mirror that night, "so you must not be too obliging in that way either. You have gotten yourself into a trap, and now the thing is to get out of it with the least harm to all concerned. Sometimes I am very much ashamed of you, Miss Chester."

She was paying dearly enough for her fit of girlish wilfulness. Max treated her with a cool friendliness that vexed her, and not the less because she knew she could bring him to her feet with a word—a look. But she scorned stooping to the slightest advance, perhaps because she was not sufficiently infatuated with the condition we term love; and yet she resented his affected indifference and his leaving the field to George, whom she had to hold in check with every artifice known to her sex. True, at first, to outwit Adolphus and tantalize Max if he presumed she was ready to fall into his hand like ripe fruit, she had encouraged George, but after those few days she had given him no cause to believe she favored his suit. Had she not again and again foiled his attempt to declare himself? Was she culpable because he was wilfully blind to the fact that she did not love him? But at every question her conscience condemned her, and it was Dupey, not Max, after all who was her greatest grief. More than once she had resolved to let him come to the point and end his hope, but was deterred by her reluctance to inflict such pain, though the rearranged condition would have been infinitely more agreeable to her. She even had thoughts of banishing both suitors and encouraging the attentions of other young gentlemen who only awaited the opportunity to throng her parlor and pay their devotions. But she could not seriously entertain that project; a little spark way down in her heart was the barrier.

Altogether it was not a happy time for

any one of the three : Max hopeless ; George each day finding his heart's desire more unattainable, and Edith at thorough cross-purposes with her own wishes and principles. Fortunately a change came.

On the occasion of an opossum hunt Max and George were together when the animal was treed, and to them belonged the honor of its capture.

"Name the day for the supper," said Max graciously.

George flushed and replied hesitatingly :

"Suppose we don't kill it just yet. Let's send it to—don't you think it would be fun to send it to—to Miss Edith as a prisoner of war, and let her decide its fate?"

Max readily assented, and wrote a note in his most elegant style relating the circumstances of the capture and their decision to make her arbiter of the captive's fate. The note and opossum were despatched by Job, who speedily returned with dejected countenance.

"Mahs Max, it am er shame, fuh sho' ; dat am de fattes' possum we done catch dis fall. When it went runnin' off in de bresh meh haht go down in meh boots. De good Lahd ain' gwine gib people whut 'spises his gif's no mo' sech chances fuh de bes'es' eatin in de lan'."

"So your Miss Edith set it free, did she, Job?"

"Dat she did, sah ! Heah's er note she gimme fuh yo'."

Edith expressed her pleasure at being able to save the prisoner's life, and invited both gentlemen to supper that evening in lieu of the one they had lost. The note was written in exceptionally bright, happy phrase, and the graceful compliment of the invitation brought a glow of pleasure to Max's face.

The evening had the rawness of early winter, but the huge fireplace of the parlor at The Oaks was ablaze, sending a cheerful light into the yard and diffusing a warmth through the house that penetrated to the very marrow and caused delicious thrills of comfort to course down the spine of the visitors. There was no other company, but Edith had dressed her glossy tresses with

unusual care and was resplendent in a scarlet waist trimmed with black ribbon velvet. There was no collar to the dress, but a narrow band of lace and insertion supplied its place and showed the full length of her shapely neck, which was whiter in contrast with the graceful streamers pendent from the tiny head-dress, also of black ribbon velvet, perched upon the low coil of her hair. There is a portrait of her in this very costume, an old daguerreotype, beautiful as any costly miniature ; a tender smile plays round the mouth, the eyes shine, and expressive shadows lurk within their dark depths ; the hair grows just low enough upon the broad white forehead, while the poise of the head reminds one of a Greek statue. To the young men coming in out of the chill and gloom she looked an angel—or, better still, the incarnation of the spirit of home.

Max took note of her beauty with a heart he had much labor to keep in good cheer. How he loved her ! What could she not inspire him to ? What a heaven she would make her home ! If she would but make her nest with him she would be prized and guarded as no birdling ever was before. But between him and their happiness stood George Dupey and half a dozen other admirers, any one of whom she seemed to prefer to himself. Alas ! alas ! All this and much more flashed through his mind as he returned her cordial greeting and passed the compliments of the evening.

It was a merry supper-table. The opossum was discussed at length, with many a *bon mot* on the part of all save Mrs. Chester, who was not given to witty speeches, and Adolphus, too much engaged with the supper before him to waste time on the supper he had lost.

"Job was much aggrieved that you set the possum free, Edith," said Max.

"Blast his familiarity !" growled George under his breath. "They are not girl and boy together any longer, and he ought to address her becomingly."

Apparently she saw nothing wrong, for she smiled brightly as she answered :

"Yes, he looked so disappointed that I felt sorry for him ; but I couldn't decide other-

wise. It seemed to me the possum knew I held its life in my hand. I almost fancied there were tears in its eyes as it looked at me."

"Oh, well, Job will be consoled, for to-morrow brother is going to butcher his hogs, and in the delight of that occasion even possum-meat will be forgotten. Apropos of the butchering I will now deliver an invitation I was charged not to forget. Sister has promised Mrs. Allyn a crackling-bread dinner, and bade me ask you to come and help entertain her. Of course sister will be the busiest woman on the place to-morrow."

"Tell her I shall be delighted. It will be fun to hear Mrs. Allyn exclaim with enjoyment over the fare. When she has been regaled on it annually for eighteen years she will not find crackling-bread so delicious. I don't doubt my nurse taught me to walk by holding out a chunk of it as a decoy."

Then they talked of other things—of their church, the gossip of the neighborhood, the next party, of the war, even, whose footfall was growing so loud that we wonder now how any one could fail to hear it. They rallied Max upon his northern partisanship, and he, determined not to believe in so fatal a settlement as bloodshed, laughed back, and not one of them dreamed that in six months the whole country would be in arms.

When they returned to the parlor George had to pay the penalty for masquerading as a lover of chess. Adolphus immediately claimed him. This afforded Max the first opportunity for weeks of talking with Edith in private.

"Do you know I am going away?" he asked in a tone inaudible to the others, though George unconsciously strained his ear to listen.

"Why, no; where are you going?"

"To Texas. You know—"

"To Texas! When?"

"I had intended to start to-morrow, but perhaps I shall not go till the next day. We own considerable property there which has declined in value through the neglect of our agent. One of us must go down to look after it, and brother has decided that I shall go."

"How long will you be gone?"

"I can't say; several months probably."

"And not be home for Christmas? I thought you were looking forward with such pleasure to a Christmas at home after all your years at college."

"Yes, I did, particularly when I first came back. I don't care so much about it now."

The reproach of his tone touched her. To hide it she said eagerly:

"Why not let Cousin John go?"

"Oh, there are too many ties binding him at home; he could not stay as long as the business demands."

"Yes, I know—of course it would be better for you to leave."

She said the words slowly, as if they gave her pain. Was it possible she cared for his absence?

A pause followed, during which he was thinking hard. Somehow he felt that he had regained the ground he had lost—lost he knew not why—after that first month since his return; but a single false step might ruin all. A woman's favor is variable as a weather-vane till once it is really secured; then it is steadfast as the northern star.

"Edith," he said, "it would sweeten my absence if I thought you would be glad when I return; shall you?"

"Why, certainly I shall," she answered gaily, though a tremor was perceptible in her voice. "But you must admit you have not been such a frequent visitor as to make your absence greatly felt."

"Whose fault was that? You evidently preferred other visitors, so I stayed away."

"Don't you think my heart is large enough to hold all my friends?"

He came to a swift determination. Without answering her question he abruptly asked:

"Tell me, Edith, do you love George?"

"I won't answer; that is my own affair."

"Not entirely. If you love him you could not love me, and that is my affair. Tell me, Edith—you must tell me—do you love him?"

Must tell him! She was about to return a saucy answer, but raising her eyes to his face his own restrained her. In them there

glowed a language of such earnestness and eagerness, such truth and depth, that it revealed how anxiously he awaited her reply. He was the master at that moment; all the woman in her rose in her own condemnation.

"No."

She more breathed than uttered it, but his ear caught the sound.

"Then—my dearest! my darling!—could you love me?"

"I might"—again half breathed.

"Won't you try, sweetheart?" he pleaded.

"I will think about it. When you come back—"

"When I come back you will give me the answer I wish above everything else?"

"I won't promise to-night."

"But to-morrow? I have decided—I won't leave for Texas till the next day."

"No, nor to-morrow. Don't press me, Max; be satisfied with what I have said."

And therewith he had to be content; but she accompanied the words with a glance whose brightness was tempered with such gentleness that every drop of blood in his body raised its separate hallelujah of joy.

Further conversation was impossible. Two games had been played, and George, purposely or from inattention, was utterly routed. He declared he would not play again and asked Edith to sing. But Max rose from the sofa with her, selected her songs, and remained by her side till the singing was ended. George was discomfited and at an early hour proposed leaving, and on their departure it was with poorly concealed pleasure that he heard Max tell Mrs. Chester of the Texas trip.

(*To be continued.*)

## MARK TWAIN'S PLACE IN LITERATURE.

BY DAVID MASTERS.

AS a rule authors who can write anything better than mere humor strive by every means in their power to show the world that they have other and higher gifts than those of the mirth-provoking order. Twain belongs to this class, and of later years he has been striving to obliterate the memories of his first success, the success that made him famous—"The Innocents Abroad." It is safe to assume that the best things he has written since then have been produced under the spur of a determination to show the world that the court jester can take off his cap and bells and say a striking thing seriously.

The immense reputation attained by his first book has been a heavy handicap to Twain in one sense, and an advantage to him in another. It was a rough-and-tumble sort of book, the worst of all his literary efforts, but probably the most popular, striking the public fancy at a time when it was ready to be amused, and the success of the work was instantaneous and positive, being no doubt an astonishment to authors

of more pretentious ambitions, who had burned the midnight oil more assiduously than he, and no doubt with more painstaking effort, only to find themselves, after years of hard work, still unknown quantities in the world of letters.

One can readily surmise after reading Twain's later works that he has been for years past trying with commendable purpose to live down "The Innocents Abroad." Finding himself in the broad glare of public interest, he set about doing something better than the effort that had first attracted the attention of the country. To realize how admirably he has succeeded, one has but to note the steady improvement in his style and facility of expression, as well as the purpose and seriousness of his work in his later publications.

The public, however, has tenaciously clung to the first impressions formed of the writer, and for this reason has overlooked the fact that there are much more substantial things in his writings than merely humorous conceits. His "Yankee at the



Court of King Arthur" is an able argument in favor of free trade, but most of his readers pay but little attention to this fact, as they are not looking for free trade theories in such a place and only devour the fun and frolic of the pages. His "Prince and Pauper" is a book of intense dramatic interest, the details worked out with rare skill, and some of the descriptive work has a dignity of diction hard to surpass.

The idea is often conveyed to us by eastern writers that the atmosphere of the West is in some way detrimental to perfection in literary work, and that the successful writer must of necessity pass his early life in the East, where he can enjoy the environments of colleges and come in contact with a certain sort of civilization not to be found in the West.

There was a time when the people of England did not deem it worthy of admission that an American author could write English, until Washington Irving convinced them of their error. The same spirit now possesses the writers along the Atlantic seaboard, and they persistently decry the literary work done west of the eightieth parallel of longitude.

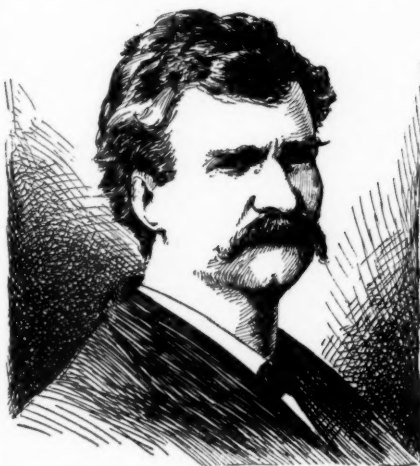
Let us note for a moment to what extent they have a right to do this. Bret Harte, Eugene Field, Ambrose Bierce, Joaquin Miller, W. C. Morrow, and a dozen others that might be named have shown what the West could do in the line of good writing. Their work is rugged and full of a force and originality that cannot be found outside the surroundings these men have enjoyed. Some of the pens now furnishing the hack-work for the eastern magazines never get beyond a certain monotony, yet they are put forward as the only lights in the literary

horizon. They have by constant practice become the masters of commonplace and their long-drawn descriptions of commonplace events are pronounced true to life. No one can dispute their fidelity to the subject treated, but a great artist is one who can reproduce a great subject by bringing out its most striking points, and he need not be a master of technique in order to produce a great painting. The artist who portrays a great battle-scene or depicts the force and movement of a mountain storm may lack the rudimentary training of one who can paint a dead fish so perfectly that it is hard to keep the house cat from pouncing on it, but the picture of the tragedy and the storm will appeal most to our senses, because the soul and imagination of the artist is to some extent infused into the picture and absorbed by the art lover.

Twain, while not a master of literary technique, is above all of his contemporaries the master of strong description and the art of presenting a picture that glows with a certain light that brings in bold relief every point that the writer wants the

reader to see. To write plainly and understandingly and make everything vivid and plain to the reader seems to be the acme of good writing, and in this sort of work Twain stands preeminent.

Suppose for the sake of argument that Twain had put in his early days at some eastern college; no doubt that quality of composition which Mr. Thompson calls "style" might have been molded differently, but it would have been at the expense of those characteristics of originality which now stamp all his writing. With no artificial cultivation, his genius took its own bent, and proved strong enough to tower into a



SAMUEL L. CLEMENS ("MARK TWAIN").

sturdy tree, in a soil where the more delicately nurtured plant, first propagated in the city hothouse, would have died.

With the writer of weak individuality and small self-confidence there is an inevitable tendency to imitate the style of some great writer of the past, and this inclination soon disposes of its victim. Twain, with his early poverty and uninviting environments, had but little opportunity to study the works of the standard writers, and was thus saved from the endeavor to imitate them, had he been so disposed. His inborn desire to write could not be suppressed and he gave the world a style of his own, a style which, in spite of its incapacity to satisfy the eastern critic, would make a great gap in American literature were all of his books to be suddenly effaced.

Much of the conciseness of his narration is due to his early association with Joseph Goodman and D. E. McCarthy, who first gave him employment on the *Territorial Enterprise* at Virginia City, Nevada. These men were the leading newspaper writers of the coast, and were the faithful disciples of the concise school of writing of which Charles A. Dana, of the New York *Sun*, is the acknowledged founder. Under their tuition Twain acquired the art of brevity and clearness in literary composition, and for this the American public owes them something of a debt.

The West did something else for Twain: it made him a hater of sham; for in no place in the world is imposition and fraudulent pretense so soon measured up and weighed. There men acquire nothing by hereditary right, and those who came to the country in Twain's time were all supposed to start alike in the race for preferment. The pretender soon went to the wall and people who assumed to be what they were not were held in the most profound contempt. All through his writings he lays the flail upon all manner of shams, whether in society, politics, or the learned professions, and one has yet to find a line in all his works that defends any principle that is unjust or smacks of humbug. He might quote Omar in speaking of himself:

Let this one thing for my atonement plead:  
That "one" for "two" I never did misread.

In introducing his characters Twain generally indulges in a touch of his characteristic description that in a single paragraph tells the reader just what may be expected of the party introduced. For instance, he introduces a group of loungers in an old Missouri town and speaks of a man who "pursed his mouth up like the stem end of a ripe tomato" and took a shot at a tumblebug about six feet away, overwhelming it with a stream of tobacco juice. At once the various members of the group, with an accuracy born of long practice, direct their respective streams of tobacco juice upon the hapless insect and drown it then and there. The narration of this incident, bordering as it does on the vulgar and commonplace, still serves better than anything else imaginable to convey to the reader the sort of people to be met in the succeeding pages of the book, and no amount of introductory writing could more clearly perform this service.

In "Huckleberry Finn," "Tom Sawyer," and other works it is claimed that the author gave to the world his own youthful escapades, which sounds probable, but I feel safe in saying that he also drew in the same pages many character sketches which are photographically true to life, for I was personally acquainted with some of their originals.

"Prince and Pauper," the most dramatic and the most feelingly written of his works, and probably the one that received the least public appreciation, is a splendid satire on the fuss and flummery of royalty, and contains some of the most dramatic strokes in literature. Tom Canty, of Offal Court, riding at the head of a richly caparisoned host to be crowned king of England, in the midst of the thundering welcome of cannon, is accosted by his mother, and with his head turned giddy with the intoxication of the occasion denies her recognition. For an instant the reader would like to hurl Tom Canty from his steed, but forgives him later on, when, bowed with contrition and a torturing conscience, he says in a dead

voice to the duke at his side, "She was my mother." This pathetic incident soon yields its hold upon the reader when the great seal of England is discovered only on the bogus young prince's announcing that he has been using it to crack nuts with.

In "A Yankee at the Court of King Arthur" there is another dramatic scene, when the king goes into the pauper's hut and comes out bearing in his arms the poor girl stricken with smallpox. All the poets and romancers who have delighted to clothe chivalry with the glamour of romance and unreality never were able to place a king in a more sublime position than that.

The world has been wont to look at the knights of the Round Table, Sir Launcelot, Merlin, and the enchanted country about Camelot through the poetic spectacles of Tennyson; but Twain, with his hard-headed, practical way of looking at everything, regards chivalry as a humbug, just as Cervantes regarded it, and prods the sham much in the same way, except that his fun is more modern, and he hammers away at game which Cervantes has already killed.

People who read Twain by skipping everything that is not humorous, or by trying to extract a laugh from every paragraph, overlook much that is beautiful or philosophical. Twain can paint a beautiful piece of landscape when he feels disposed. Here is where he tells of his morning ride with Sandy, the irrepressible creature he picked up in Arthur's court:

Straight off we were in the country. It was most lovely and pleasant in those sylvan solitudes, in the early cool morning in the first freshness of autumn. From hilltops we saw fair green valleys spread out below, with streams winding through them, and island groves of trees here and there, and huge lonely oaks scattered about and casting black blots of shade; and beyond the valleys we saw the range of hills, blue with haze, stretching away in billowy perspective to the horizon, with at wide intervals a dim fleck of white or gray on a wave summit, which we knew was a castle.

We crossed broad natural lawns sparkling with dew, and we moved like spirits, the cushioned turf giving out no sound of footfall; we dreamed along through glades in a mist of green light that got its tints from the sun-drenched roof of leaves overhead, and by our feet the clearest and coldest of runlets went gossiping over the reefs and making a sort of

whispering music comfortable to hear; and at times we left the world behind and entered into the solemn great deeps and rich gloom of the forest, where the furtive wild things whisked and scurried by and were gone before you could even get your eye on the place where the noise was, and where only the earliest birds were turning out and getting down to business, with a song here and there and a quarrel yonder, and a mysterious far-off hammering and drumming for worms on a tree-trunk away somewhere in the impenetrable remoteness of the woods. And by and by we would swing again into the glare.

This does not sound like Twain at all, but seems to have been written by him merely to show the reader what he could do in the way of fine descriptive writing when the mood seized him.

The touch that spoils it is the earliest birds "turning out and getting down to business." This, however, was probably thrown in by the author to indicate that while he could pen this sort of descriptions very easily, he really had a very light opinion of them.

There are numberless delightful bits of picturesque landscape in Twain's writing, and clever dashes of color upon which one stumbles in the most unexpected places. If they were all collected and published by themselves as some anonymous writer's work, few would associate them with Twain.

This is because the court jester can never shake off the rôle he has once filled. No matter how wise, eloquent, or serious his utterances may be, they will still be regarded as coming from the jester, and be treated accordingly. Twain has made the American people laugh so much and so long that they can only associate his name with a burst of levity, and thus it comes about that his deep, beautiful, and pathetic things are either overlooked or misconstrued.

A friend of Twain's, a gentleman very close to him, once stated to me that he had every reason to believe that Twain had in contemplation the publication of an anonymous book so unlike anything he had ever written that his own wife would not be able to recognize it. Twain could then enjoy the fun of reading the criticisms, and would doubtless take a hand himself in writing a few of them. Who knows but that he has

already placed such a work before the public? That he could do such a thing well, no one will deny, for if there is a writer in America capable of performing a neater feat of literary legerdemain than Twain, he is certainly unknown to the public.

\* The charge that Twain is neither elegant nor graceful in his writing may be well founded, but he has the happy faculty of

writing plainly and with a blunt force that can never be misunderstood, and this pleases the average reader better than an elegance of diction made to conceal poverty of thought. Much of his work was written only for the day and generation in which it was published, and so will pass away, but meanwhile let us hope that his method of utilizing plain Anglo-Saxon will not perish from literature.

### THE INFLUENCE OF THE FINE ARTS.

BY CHARLES MASON FAIRBANKS.

WHATEVER else may be said of the influence of the fine arts on public education and morals, it must be regretfully admitted by the judicious observer that it is not all that it should be. One can but be depressed by the all but universal lack in our public buildings, our schoolrooms, and even in our homes, of any evidence of an appreciation of the beautiful, albeit the untutored mind of the savage and the undeveloped instinct of the child find natural delight in loveliness of form and color.

But the habit of the people appears to have been disproportionately developed in the direction of utilitarian rather than of esthetic considerations. Our edifices are great in engineering achievement, but too often are they barren of any suggestion of the dignity of symmetrical mass or the beauty of fine proportion and appropriate embellishment. We hang pictures on our walls not for love of art, but because it is the custom and there is bare space to be filled.

The refining and uplifting influence of the beautiful upon the public taste, nevertheless, cannot be denied. We may only regret that that influence is not more generally apparent. And by art, in this consideration, it is proper for me to say that I mean something more and greater than the mere manual or visual dexterity upon the strength of the possession of which so many pretentious jugglers with paint and brush assume

to instruct the gaping public. There is that within which passeth show, at least to the eyes of the superficial—an intelligence, a soul, a moral impulse whose expression by the painter or sculptor, each man according to the faith and the light that is in him, marks the artist. It is the work of such a hand and heart that leaves its impress upon the character of a people.

Art education must begin with the first development of the human intelligence. It is instinctive. The child's delight in what is beautiful needs to be directed to the formation of a correct taste, which in its due course will find expression artistically. Neglected, this same God-given faculty will shrivel and die like the unwatered flower that is overgrown with Philistine weeds.

We cannot fail to observe the difference between the children of the cultivated, art-loving home and those of the commonplace environment that concerns itself alone with the material considerations of shelter, food, and raiment. A life among good pictures and other attributes of a high cultivation is broadened and developed; the eye, that much neglected organ, learns to perceive and the mind to appreciate the beauties that are to be found all about us. The taste for the good and the beautiful finds joy where all is weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable to the dull eyes of those who have never discovered the resources of their own natures.

In all ages and among all peoples art has found expression; it has been a part of the

daily life of all races. By its means the works of nature have been interpreted for us. The loveliness of line, the glory of color, the majesty of the firmament, and the land, and the sea have been revealed to the eyes of our souls. Acts of heroism have been nobly perpetuated in the minds of generations, teaching their lesson of right and might and of the reward of duty well done. The loftiest of human sentiments have thus found eternal voice in the enduring frescoes and monuments done by the hand of man.

Our museums and galleries of art preserve for us treasures beyond price for the education, entertainment, and uplifting of those who are willing to benefited. It is a strange thing that so few of us appreciate these advantages. We accept as true enough the assumption that a development of the taste for the beautiful is proper and good; but there is a not uncommon notion that art is a mere accomplishment to be studied by the few, and that pictures are a luxury and works of sculpture a sheer extravagance. But despite the apparent indifference of a great many persons to the fine arts, they are learning in spite of themselves. The unhappy day of the tidy and the decalomania, the decorated hearth-brush, and the fantastic lambrequin is passing, if, indeed, it may not be said to be even now but a melancholy memory. We are getting beyond the meretricious appliqué and gingerbread style of household decoration, and we are learning to esteem the simple grace of form and honest construction.

Of course all that sets up to be art is not on that account to be accepted as such. A work of art to be of value must have more to commend it than the skilful execution of the artisan, whose whole thought is in his tools and the means of expression rather than in the thing to be expressed. For it is, of course, the expression of the mind, and a weak mind must produce weak art. Following first an interest, one comes to some apprehension of the significance and language of art. In it he sees the manner of man that has painted or carved or builded well. And as of men, so of nations in their art. As Ruskin expressively

says: "If the work is a cobweb, you know it was made by a spider; if a honeycomb, by a bee; a worm-cast is thrown up by a worm, and a nest wreathed by a bird; and a house built by a man, worthily if he is worthy, and ignobly if he is ignoble."

The wonderful growth of the study of the fine arts in this country of recent years, beginning at the time of the Philadelphia Centennial and greatly encouraged by the revelations of the Chicago Exposition, shows most clearly and happily that we are not, as a people, lacking in a faculty for art development. Observe the splendid strides that recent years have witnessed in architectural achievement, the pictorial beauty and monumental character of the decorations of some of our new libraries, hotels, and other public buildings, the perfection of our book and magazine illustrations, and even the fine art that it is not at all uncommon to find in the very posters that cover the city's dead walls. The veriest dullard cannot escape the influences of these manifestations of what is beautiful and decorative, even if he would. His own taste must be awakened by them, even unconsciously, his sense quickened, and some glimmer of the light of beauty let into his sluggish soul.

A touching instance of the natural longing of even the most uncultivated is to be had in the loan exhibitions of fine paintings that a number of intelligently benevolent gentlemen of New York arranged last winter for those benighted people who live on the great city's East Side. Here, indeed, is a population that sees but little of the beauties of life or nature. It is true they have narrow glimpses of the blue sky of heaven up from the dismal tenement-bounded cañons in which they exist. But they had hardly known of the existence of what we call art, until an exhibition was arranged for them of paintings brought from some of the finest galleries of the city. If they were greatly impressed by the great, to them inconceivably large, value of these treasures, they were not so different in their view from the many others who esteem a painting on account of its cost; but the significant thing that I would mention is the



eagerness with which thousands of the poor people of this squalid district flocked to the gallery and lingered before paintings that must have revealed to their stunted intelligences glimpses of a new world and visions of something very like fairyland.

It is the history of all nations that the perfect flower of art has developed in the same manner through a period of hardship in which the physical qualities have first been developed. A warlike period has followed, and then a devotion to the home life. Finally has come a love of art. The decadence of art has appeared with the days of luxury when it has been pursued for pleasure only. This testimony of time is consistent with the theory that art is founded on moral character. Great art, therefore, must be good art, and its influence upon education must be in the right direction. The greatest need seems to be that the educators themselves shall be taught to appreciate the opportunities of this field of instruction, which, to my mind, is too little understood and too little developed. Let the schoolrooms be made beautiful with good examples of art works, that the children of this generation, who are to be the men and women of the next, may be able to make amends to their children for the deprivations that ours have suffered under us.

The process of development in the study of works of the fine arts is interesting. The immature taste first fancies works of a certain sentimental or dramatic character—what we are wont to call story-telling pictures. Style of one kind or another attracts, or a scheme of color, or some facile habit of execution. It takes time for the student to apprehend the fact that these qualities do not of themselves constitute a real work of fine art. He learns presently to look for the decorative effect, for a certain harmony and balance; he seeks to find the painter's message and to see what he saw and as he saw it. He is no longer satisfied with the mere painted anecdote, however cleverly executed—such a simple array of obvious facts as might be as well set forth in a photograph. He feels for the first time consciously the charm of mystery and of at-

mosphere, and of the sentiment of nature as seen by a poet's eyes, and realizes how much more beautiful it is than the bald, matter-of-fact, exact, minute reality of commonplace imitation. The meretricious picture palls upon the taste. The works of a Makart or a Bougereau, however skillfully drawn and painted, fail to hold the interest even by their voluptuous beauty, beside such noble works as, say, Rosa Bonheur's "Horse Fair," Millet's "Angelus," or a canvas by Corot.

In a consideration of the moral influence of art it may be said somewhat obviously that if it is not bad it must be good. But it is not its function to preach except as it may translate and interpret the "sermons in stones, books in the running brooks, and good in everything." If the fancies of artists are beautiful and pure, then do they fulfil their mission and give us joy. We have much that is foolish and much that is false from the brushes of modern decadents; but I do not think we need concern ourselves very greatly about their power for evil. Like the poison-ivy, they may flourish noisomely, and some may suffer from contact with their noxious works, but then we can never hope to exterminate all evil from the field of art any more than from any other sphere of human activity. Every taste will indulge itself according to its nature, be it fine or vulgar, but that is not the fault of art. The didactic influence of good art will be always for the uplifting of those who are themselves pure, and such will spurn the false and the coarse.

Fashions in contemporary art are a powerful, and often misdirected influence, because they carry the injudicious along wrong paths, like sheep in a flock, unheeding their direction. Instead of thinking for themselves, too many persons are content to travel in any sort of company, no matter how bad, rather than to go independently alone. It needs but a self-appointed leader to say of some such vulgar painter as Hans Makart or Rochegrosse, for example, not to mention instances nearer home, that this perfection of the representation of the voluptuous or licentious is fine, because it

is finished and deft, in order to at once establish a vogue. We come presently to tolerate that which to every decent instinct must appear to be essentially gross.

My own view of the matter is that there is as much danger of prudery on the one hand as of evil influence on the other, however, and I cannot regard prudery as an unmixed blessing. The good people of Boston have recently attracted some attention to the extreme purity of their mental attitude toward art by rejecting a gift to their beautiful public library of a bronze figure of a bacchante by the sculptor Macmonnies. It is an ideally beautiful figure of a young girl holding an infant on one arm and with the other hand dangling a bunch of grapes above the reach of the laughing child. There are no draperies, but what of that? The lovely nymph is dancing with the gladness of an eternal glee, and the composition expresses in every line and

curve the joy of existence. I am sorry for the person who cannot see in this figure beauty and grace, but who finds in it no higher expression than one of sensuality only.

If art may be regarded as an expressive language, and so likened to literature, it would seem then that its influence on education and morals must depend on the sort of art. But whereas nearly every one reads, good books or bad, the habit of observing and studying works of art is not nearly universal. Opportunities to study are multiplying, however, in our larger cities, and in its application to every-day surroundings artistic decoration is, I am sure, developing a taste on the part of the public that must bear good fruit. We cannot have too much of the beautiful in our lives, and it is the gracious mission of the artist to teach us to see it and to understand its manifestations all about us in this work-a-day world of ours.

## THE SONS OF RECENT PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

BY FOSTER COATES.

**B**LOOD will tell. It is not true that the sons of great men are of little account, although there is some such impression in the public mind. Great men are not always favored by Providence with sons their equal in intellectual ability, and skilled financiers who have amassed vast fortunes very often leave descendants who find it easier to get rid of accumulations of money than to add to what has been provided for them by their thrifty predecessors.

Somehow or other there has gotten among the maxims the statement that ministers' sons are as a rule worthless. I could prove to the contrary if I had time. I could prove to the contrary about the sons of rich men, too, and I could name for you in substantiation of my assertion the men who constitute the reigning houses of Astor and Vanderbilt. I could go into the various professions and prove that there are worthy sons of great men in medicine, in

surgery, in law, in the arts, and in the sciences. As world-famous examples let me cite to you the sons of the greatest living Englishman, if not the greatest man on this planet to-day, William E. Gladstone. They have all done well in their chosen walks in life. They are loved and esteemed for their own superb qualities not less than because of their fortunate birth. The son of Prince Bismarck would have made his own way in the world even without the aid of the powerful Iron Chancellor. The Rothschilds of to-day are more potent in the world of finance than their fathers before them.

But I am not going to discuss these men. Instead I shall invite your attention to the living sons of former presidents of the United States. The American public does not lose interest in its popular idols in a day or two. It would be no easy task, to be sure, for the sons of former presidents to stand out as prominently as their fathers,

because they are removed from the fierce white light that casts its rays on the national capitol. But it will be a pleasure to all Americans who believe in pluck and perseverance to know that the sons of our presidents since the close of the war up to to-day have acquitted themselves manfully and creditably.

It can be claimed for the Grant family, without fear of contradiction, that they have kept themselves more prominently before the public than the children of any of the other presidents. The three sons of Gen. Ulysses S. Grant are now in the prime of life. First in the family stands Col. Frederick D. Grant. He is a West Point graduate and served some little time with

his father at the front just before the close of the war. He was prominent during his father's occupancy of the White House and he has been more or less in the public eye ever since, having held some sort of an office almost uninterruptedly since his father's retirement. Under the Harrison administration he was the American minister to Austria. The post is not a difficult one and he acquitted himself to the satisfaction of the State Department.

When the reform wave swept over New York and the legislative investigation showed the utter degradation and corruption in the police department, Colonel Grant was selected by the mayor as a man to help purify the city government. He was in-

stalled as one of the police commissioners. He has not succeeded as well as he desired, because of his environment. Because of legislative folly and a lack of understanding of municipal problems, New York City has the misfortune to be dominated by a bipartisan police board. Of course this is purely and simply for the purpose of corrupt and crooked dealings by the politicians. Bi-partisanship is only another name for municipal folly. Colonel Grant has been brought into a good deal of notoriety during his term of office because of his determination to pursue a policy different from that outlined by the reformers. He has shown his great father's greatest characteristic. He believed that he was right; he marked out a line of policy for himself and steadfastly pursued it, just as his father before him marked



COL. FREDERICK D. GRANT.

out his line of policy and carried on his warfare to the successful end.

Colonel Grant makes New York City his home. He is a prominent figure in business, in social, and in political life. Beside his occupation as police commissioner he is engaged in various private enterprises. He is much in demand at public dinners and at public meetings, although he is in no sense of the term a fluent speaker. Indeed, he is just the reverse. He can write a short, sharp, sententious letter, but when he stands up to express himself he seems to be totally lost for both words and ideas. In this, again, he resembles his father. General Grant could write very well. Some of his war despatches and letters will live

so long as war remains and is written and talked about. There is a charm and ease about his personal memoirs that have given the volume a place in every library. But General Grant was no orator. Late in life he became tolerably familiar with speaking in public and acquitted himself with fair credit.

The home life of the Grant family is thoroughly American. Colonel Grant married a sister of Mrs. Potter Palmer of Chicago, a Miss Honore, and she has made a typical American home in the heart of the metropolis. They have two children, a boy and a girl. Julia Dent Grant, the eldest of the two, is now a little over twenty years of age. She has been in society for a few months and has become quite popular both in this city and in Washington. She began her social career at Newport last summer. She is a beautiful young woman, well

educated and entirely able to earn her own living, if that shall become necessary. She speaks half a dozen languages and has developed very satisfactorily a talent for painting. She has studied art abroad, and at one time was anxious to make a career

for herself by taking a regular course in one of the great art schools of New York, with the view of devoting her entire time to painting for a livelihood.

Ulysses S. Grant, third, the only son, is a tall, broad-shouldered young man, almost six feet in height, although he has only just turned sixteen years of age. During the past four years he has been studying at various schools in this city, preparing for admission to West Point at the beginning of the fall



ULYSSES S. GRANT, JR.

term. Shortly before General Grant's death he left a letter directed to the president of the United States who should be serving in the year 1896, asking him to appoint the lad to the military academy. This letter was not presented to President Cleveland because of the necessity for more preliminary study, but it has been turned over to President McKinley, and when the term at West Point begins Ulysses S. Grant, third, will be entered as the personal appointee of President McKinley. Young Grant is an enthusiast on military matters. He has inherited his grandfather's taste for a soldier's life, and is looking forward to a great career in the army.

Colonel Grant and his wife and children live in excellent style, go out into society a good deal, and are much sought after. The colonel is a great, broad-shouldered man, much larger than his father, but with

the typical Grant head and an enormous black beard. He dresses quietly and in good taste. In personal intercourse his manners are charming and agreeable. He is a man who would have made his own way in the world, even without the help that came from his glorious heritage.

Ulysses S. Grant, the second son of General Grant, is entirely different from his brothers. He has devoted himself to farming at Salem Center, Westchester County, New York, for a number of years. His farm is large and produces a great many fine vegetables, milk, cream, and butter, and a beautiful variety of roses that find a ready sale in the New York market. He seldom comes to the city, except on business, and I do not recall a time when he has been heard of in public affairs. He is of a very retiring disposition and prefers rural to city life. He has the largest family of any of the Grant children, three girls and two boys. The youngest of these, a boy four years old, is named Ulysses S. Grant, fourth, so there are two grandchildren bearing down to history the same illustrious name. It will be interesting to watch the development of the two lads and their

future careers when they shall arrive at man's estate. The eldest of the five children is Miss Miriam, now fifteen years of age. She was named after her maternal grandmother. She has been attending private schools and in the fall will enter a fashionable establishment where she will be prepared for a college career. The second son is Chaffee Grant. He is a lad of twelve and was named after his mother, who was Miss Chaffee. The third child is a girl, named Julia Dent, after her grandmother. The next is Dorothy, a little miss of seven.

Jesse Grant, the youngest son of the general, may be said to be the business man of the family. Since his coming of age he has identified himself with business enterprises, and when the awful storm burst about the family during the Grant & Ward failure he very tactfully and skilfully relieved his father of much responsibility and did a great deal to repair the misfortune. After his father's death he took to mining, and now he has secured control of several large mining interests and is also founding a colony in Lower California. He is aiming high. He hopes to build a city and induce capitalists to invest money in the development of the state.

During the last national campaign young Grant excited considerable talk by casting his fortunes with the free silver movement. This seemed strange, because his father and brothers were so thoroughly and intensely Republican. But young Grant was a victim of circumstances. The success of free silver meant a larger measure of success for himself. He is very well-to-do in this world's goods, but he would have become enormously wealthy if the free silver idea had prevailed. In San Diego he lives in fine style, with his wife and two children, a boy and a girl. Nellie, the eldest, is now fifteen years of age and is named after her aunt, the beautiful Nellie Grant whose wedding in the White House to Algernon Sartoris was the chief



JAMES R. GARFIELD.



social event of General Grant's second term. She is described as a bright and attractive girl. The other child is a boy of ten, named Chapman, after his mother.

Although dealing only with the sons of former presidents, I cannot refrain from saying a word about Mrs. Sartoris, the only daughter of the general. She has made her home in Washington with her mother since her return from England after her husband's death. She is small in stature and resembles her great father more than any of the other children. Her married life was far from pleasant. She has three children, one boy and two girls. The eldest is Algernon,

who is now studying law in a Washington law school. His two sisters are Vivian, now eighteen, and Rosamond, aged sixteen. They are handsome, talented young women, a happy blending of the best there is in English and American girlhood.

Rutherford Hayes, the second son of Rutherford B. Hayes, is a lawyer and lives in Toledo, Ohio. He is about thirty-six years of age and bears a striking resemblance to his father. He has devoted himself to the legal profession and is said to be very skilful at the bar. In manner he is easy, suave, and approachable. He makes a good argument and is held in high esteem by his associates and the residents of his city. In politics he is a Republican.

His elder brother, Webb C. Hayes, is about forty-three years of age. He lives in Cleveland. He is a bachelor and bears a strong resemblance to his mother. He wears a small mustache and has a good, honest American countenance. In stature he is of medium height and somewhat military in bearing. One of his chief pleasures



HARRY V. GARFIELD.

in life is Troop A of Cleveland, of which he is a veteran member. This is one of the finest military organizations in the country. Mr. Hayes was one of the four distinguished members of the troop who constituted the special escort to McKinley during the recent inauguration ceremonies. He cares nothing for public life and is rarely seen in society. He is the manager of the National Carbon Company, which is said to be the greatest establishment of its kind in the world. He has energy, industry, and capacity. In politics he is a Republican and in business he is a keen money-maker.

The sons of James A. Garfield are both lawyers. They practice under the firm name of Garfield & Garfield. They stand high as clear-sighted men and have acquired a lucrative practice. James R. Garfield lives at Mentor, on the old homestead. He is about thirty-two years of age and is a state senator from the district represented by his father in 1860. In appearance he strongly resembles his father. He is tall, somewhat austere in looks, and yet youthful

in appearance. He has exhibited qualities which make a successful legislator and politician. He is most anxious to enter public life and has always taken a deep interest in political questions. Two years ago he was elected to the senate by a large majority. He is a good debator, a fluent speaker, and gives promise of a brilliant future. He is an effective stump speaker and delights in public controversies. He is married and is much sought after in society.

Harry V. Garfield resembles his mother and is totally unlike his brother in physical appearance. He is not much of a public speaker, but is more of an office lawyer and cares more for his profession than he does for political or social life. He is happily married and is winning his way to success even in a profession that is overcrowded.



RUSSELL HARRISON.

Chester Alan Arthur, son of former President Arthur, is six feet tall, well built, and with slightly stooped shoulders. He in no way resembles his father. He wears a small mustache, and at first glance is more English than American in his ways and manners. He has lived abroad for five or six years and has devoted his life to recreation and pleasure. It is not known that he has any great business ability, and he has not yet marked out his career, although he was anxious to represent this country at one of the European courts during the present administration. When his father was president young Arthur was a very lively boy of about fourteen. He and his sister, the beautiful Nellie Arthur, were much sought after by the younger members of society in Washington.

Miss Arthur now resides with her aunt, Mrs. McElroy, in Albany. Mrs. McElroy, it will be remembered, was the hostess at the White House during her brother's term of office. President Arthur left an estate valued at about \$300,000. It was divided equally between his two children, so that they are well provided for if they have taken care of their money, and they need give little thought to the traditional wolf at



CHESTER A. ARTHUR, JR.

the door. Miss Arthur is seldom seen in New York society. She lives a very quiet and retired life. Her brother is better known abroad than at home. He knows more about leading a cotillion than a political caucus.

Russell Harrison son of former President Harrison, is a short, stockily built man, with a round face and a small French shaped mustache. He is about forty years of age. He lives in Terre Haute, Indiana. He cares nothing for politics and devotes all his time and attention to business enterprises. At present he is an important factor in the street railway system of his city. He has engaged in divers occupations. At one time he edited a newspaper in Montana and was interested in another in New York. He has devoted some of his time to land enterprises and has made money very rapidly. While his father was president young Harrison made a visit abroad and was entertained by the Prince of Wales at Marlborough House, and he also had the honor of dining with the good queen of England. Personally, young Harrison is most agreeable. His ways are winsome and he impressed the late Elliot F. Shepard so favorably that he gave him the sobriquet of "Prince Russell," which still clings to him.

But of all the presidents' sons now living, the man who has received the most attention, and whom I have reserved for the last, is the only surviving son of the great Lincoln. Robert T. Lincoln resides in Chicago. He has won distinction as a lawyer and as an ambassador, and is regarded most highly at the bar. He conducted some very delicate negotiations for our government at the court of St. James. He is about fifty years of age, and in the very prime of his manhood and intellectual vigor. He does

not resemble his father in any way. His father was a great story-teller, indeed a delightful humorist; the son is a hard, matter-of-fact man in the extreme. His face is most serious looking; his father's was at times lighted up seemingly by

The light that never was on sea or land.

Mr. Lincoln is about five feet nine inches in height and wears a heavy brown beard and mustache. His eyes are dark and piercing. He looks like a typical Chicago board of trade man. In manner he is reticent and rarely gives expression to his views in public. He was well liked in England, and I remember with much gratitude his courtesies to me when I was his guest in London. He has been mentioned many times for the presidency, but to his friends he has repeatedly said that he cares nothing for the office. He is happily



ROBERT T. LINCOLN.

married, is one of the leaders in Chicago society, and has little fondness for politics.

This record of the sons of former presidents of the United States is creditable alike to their fathers and to themselves. Not any of them have added luster to the family name, but none of them have besmirched it. After all, as I said in the beginning, blood will tell, and I might have added with equal truth that breeding counts for a good deal too. It would not be fair to say that the men whom I have mentioned have not been helped into successful prominence by their fathers' names

and the prestige of their families. But it is one thing to get on the top wave of success and another thing to stay there. Whether the future holds anything more in store for these sons of great men than it does for the sons of the most obscure workmen remains to be seen. For my own part I would hazard a guess that the obscure man is the more likely to be heard of in the future. The American public dearly loves surprises, and in nominating conventions the delegates have a fashion of selecting the winner for the presidential race from the stable of dark horses.

## ELECTRICITY DURING THE LAST FIVE YEARS.

BY FRANZ BENDT.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

**I**T is mostly through its practical results that a science appeals to the general public for anything more than a casual attention. This fact is nowhere more noticeable than in electricity, which has loaded humanity with gifts and in a comparatively short time has revolutionized customs and business so that the present era not unjustly has been called "the age of electricity." The term is doubly appropriate because, as all signs indicate, we are not at the end but only just at the beginning of the electrical epoch. Moreover, it should be noted, the wonderful and mysterious manner in which the electrical forces are manifested have thoroughly aroused astonishment, even in adepts, and a thirst for knowledge in the laity.

In glancing over the many practical acquisitions of the young science one gets the impression that for its years it has developed strongly and powerfully, if also disproportionately. Yet many branches of the electrical science have broadened out into mighty industries. Its practical side, electrotechnics, already has been divided into two parts, the weak current and the strong current technics, and the exponents of these two parts belong to different classes of vocations hotly rivaling each other.

A brief forecast of the history of the science will help us to appreciate its development during the last five years.

The oldest branch of the new technic does service in propagating news. It is now about seventy years that its electric spark has carried messages across oceans and over wide continents. The amount of lines and conducting wires connected with them is at the present time something imposing, and not less so is the growth that both have shown from year to year. Altogether the wires would reach about five times from the earth to the moon.

Yet more marvelous than the development of telegraphy is the development of long-distance speaking, or telephoning, already a dangerous rival to telegraphy. We are about to enjoy an extension in both lines of culture here on German soil. At the present time there are in the German Empire 93,768.46 miles of lines and 440,682.44 miles of conducting wires to convey written and spoken messages. The number of telegraph stations here is 28,281. Especially significant is the growth in the number of city telephone stations; during the last year their number has increased from 109,960 to 125,810.

The technical improvement in this region

is evidenced by the development of new telephone lines to connect cities. The longest line in Germany is found between Berlin and Memel, extending over the remarkable distance of 621.37 miles. The great distance cannot influence the audibility, for the hearing qualities are excellent. During the preliminary experiments for the laying of these connections, the experts at the German imperial post arrived at the important judgment that this line might be lengthened about threefold without injury. If they succeed in establishing communication over such a long distance, the feat will place German telephone engineers at the head of their profession, for telephonic transmission over 1864 miles never before has been accomplished except by way of experiment.

The sea cable also is a modern development, and to its possibilities, too, there is no limit. At present experts are engaged in the task of laying its conducting wires through the great ocean. Then, with the perfection of this gigantic plan, one can send a despatch around the whole world in a moment. The circuit will be complete.

While the weak current technics has consumed almost two thirds of a century in her upbuilding, her younger sister, the strong current technics, in a comparatively short time has grown into a giant. What about five years ago was mere project now is actual fact. We need mention only the extension within this time of the electrical railway.

The special problem of strong current technics was, how practically to work out methods for transmitting power. They arrived at a definite solution of this problem in the year 1891, at the electrical exposition in Frankfort on the Main, when they succeeded in leading from Lauffen on the Neckar to the exposition city their current, by means of the electric motive conductor. Since then, the hopes which were built on this solution have for the most part been realized.

One of the greatest of these outcomes, that already is much talked of, we admire in the plant for transmitting power from Niagara Falls. Of the 5,000,000 horse-

power which these greatest falls of the world exert every minute, 15,000 are diverted and put to use through a region fifteen and one half miles in radius. Buffalo, for instance, which lies within the circumference of this circle, owes its light and its business power to its electrical career at Niagara Falls.

On German soil, too, and especially in the Rhine regions, similar plants at this moment are in progress of building. By means of powerful turbines they aim to draw from the Rhine about 10,500 horse-power and to send them, by means of an electric motor, to cities and factories in all directions within a radius of twelve and one half miles.

It is obvious that power transmitted in such quantities can be sold cheap. Already its price has caused a depreciation of about thirty per cent in steam machinery. Carefully planned improvements and centralization in such an industrial district are the best methods to increase the wealth of a country and to add to the prosperity of its inhabitants. The industries of the upper Rhine, for example, previously enjoyed only a mere existence, because their life element, coal, had become exhausted. The electrical current which the new plant will send out will be able, without doubt, to convert the Rhine region establishments into places of business activity.

Already modern methods of power-transmission are beginning to make their way even into that conservative branch of industry, agriculture. Lately at Dietrichshagen, in the vicinity of Rostock, in experiments before the representatives of the Prussian ministry of agriculture, it was demonstrated clearly, time and again, that in this business one could work more cheaply by the use of mechanical than of animal power. The significance of this is plain to be seen when it is considered that in the cultivation of the soil in Germany there are employed about 2,500,000 horses and 500,000 draught oxen. According to the reckoning of most competent business people, German farmers could aggregate a yearly saving of 210,000,000 marks, or \$49,980,000, by the general use of mechan-



ical power. The experiments at Dietrichshagen led to the conclusion that by the use of electrical power-transmission and its application in electrical plows one could cut down expenses fifty per cent. The conclusion would take on a still more favorable appearance if this power, always ready for work, should find application to other purposes, such as running sugar factories, and the farmer should utilize for the production of electric currents the energy that nature places at his disposal in the form of falling or flowing streams.

In the large cities, too, they already use the electric current very effectively in the trades. The electric stations which were set up there for the generation of light also furnish currents for power, and a considerable number of working establishments have furnished their machines with it at a comparatively small cost.

Since this has been done the mighty electric current has stood at the service of the investigator as well as the tradesman everywhere, and great strides have been made in the application of the remarkable power. Thus within a few years new scientific results have developed which, such as electrochemics, for instance, have influenced the authorities to establish special chairs of learning in the high schools. Electrochemics has arisen from the union of electricity with chemistry. Until shortly ago the combination and separation of substances was effected by a comparatively weak current at a low temperature. A world of new phenomena opened to the investigators when they attacked the physical world with powerful currents and the previously unheard-of high temperatures. These multitudinous scientific conquests are made applicable through the methods of power-transmission to industrial uses, and prove valuable acquisitions to all manufactories.

One of the most fortunate discoverers in the realm of electrochemics, whose results are peculiarly adapted to rouse interest in wide circles, is Henry Moissan of Paris. With the force of the current he conquered fluorin, which most stubbornly of all the elements has resisted isolation, and pre-

sented it, free of all combinations, to the eye of the investigator—the first time it ever was seen in a free state. In his electric oven he crystalized coal to diamonds, and gold, copper, and resisting graphite were neglected and melted down into the form of little scales. These and similar experiments give an important idea of the almost creative power that the strong current lends humanity over material.

Besides such new knowledge, electrochemics has ripened the prominent practical results and has placed others nearer attainment. The extraction of the far-famed aluminum from clay takes place almost immediately under the influence of the powerful current. In like manner soda is formed from kitchen salt almost without expense if you take into account the value of the important second product. Electricity has been used successfully also to purify streams and rivers and to free them effectively from the death germs most inimical to humanity, such as cholera, typhus, malaria, etc.

Such wonderful properties explain why among the laity so often the question arises, What is electricity? Yet a few years ago a physicist would have had to stand abashed, for he knew no more of the mysterious sphinx than the questioner. Now the question can be answered, if not wholly, at least in part.

During the departing century natural philosophers have arrived at the knowledge that light and radiating heat are caused by swinging motions of a fine substance called ether. That electrical phenomena demanded a similar explanation was undoubted by every intelligent physicist; but the remarkable form of energy stubbornly refused to divulge its secret. The German physicist Heinrich Hertz first lifted the veil and showed that electricity spread out into space in waves 39.37 inches (a meter) long. This finally led to the proof that all force was expressed in the form of the billowy movements of ether. The only difference between light, radiating heat, and electricity in appearance is in the length of their respective waves.

On the theoretical judgment that electrical waves roll out into space, Nikola

Tesla built up his experiments, which afford interesting glimpses into the future development of electrotechnics. Only consider what an advantage would be gained, if, without intervening wires, verbal or written messages could be sent over the wide world, if, without cables, currents could be conducted, lamps fed, and especially if electrical energy could be made to go in whatever place one desired. To make that possible is no longer the wish of a fruitless fancy, but already has been partly realized. Thus Tesla has made tubes a meter long light up brightly without connecting them anywhere, and Preece in London has telegraphed several miles through sea water without any cable.

In order to excite the remarkable light tube Tesla makes use of a peculiar machine, which conducts the so-called alternating current at a high speed of alternations. With this he made observations on wonderful phenomena. It is pretty generally known that alternating currents are dangerous; in fact they already have cost many human lives. Through the use of an ordinary machine for alternating currents, all organic life may be annihilated. But the immeasurably stronger and faster alternating Tesla current does no harm whatever to animals and people by passing through them. For instance it was found that dogs subjected to a current that made 4,500 alternations in a second were not disturbed, while an

equally strong current of 120 alternations killed them. By further experiments on animals Professor Houston arrived at the general knowledge that with the increase of alternations—from a certain limit up—the danger from the currents diminishes and the effect even becomes beneficial. When the number of alternations is increased until they equal those of the waves of ether, which brings down the sunlight, they are able to exert on the surface of the body the same beneficial effects as ether. In fact Tesla has set out to use his current for remedial purposes.

Only shortly ago Roentgen's marvelous discovery gave us a new outlook on the phenomena and results of nature's forces. So great an impression has it made upon us all that it is almost unnecessary to dwell on the peculiar X-rays, invisible in themselves, that expose to view the interior of opaque bodies, and on the practical results to which already they have given place and which are yet to grow out of them. These things have been set forth at length in the journals during the last year, and for months have occupied whole columns of the newspapers. Yet we here may mention the greatest theoretical importance of the Roentgen discovery. It has shown that the X-rays are manifested through the wave motions of ether and that these waves are the smallest that ever yet have been observed.

## THE TSIMPSEANS OF BRITISH COLUMBIA AND KLINGETS OF ALASKA.

BY E. ODLUM.

**I**N my travels I have met representatives of nearly all the North American Indian tribes between latitudes 40° and 60° north. I shall, however, confine myself to the Tsimpsseans of northwestern British Columbia and the Klingets of Alaska. The red men of North America may be divided into three groups, those of the Center, the East, and the West. In the last are the Tsimpsseans and Klingets.

The Tsimpsseans are found at Port Simpson, Port Essington, Lachalsep, Kitex,

Kitalobe, Old Metlakahtla, New Metlakahtla, on Annette Island, and at other adjacent places. They are about as tall as the white people, heavily built, square-shouldered, deep-chested, intelligent, and brave. At present the whole nation is largely under the teaching of Methodists and Anglicans. Formerly wars, murders, savageries, and idolatries occupied these people. Now the majority are members of Christian churches. The young generation can nearly all read and write.

The Tsimpseans are composed of the following tribes: the Crow, Bear, Whale, Frog, Wolf, Beaver, and Eagle. Each of these represents a family or tribe corresponding to the clan Campbells of Scotland or the Nakamuras of Japan. Each tribe has its own crest, as in Japan at this day. A member of the Wolf tribe has the wolf for his crest, and a Bear has the moon and stars, showing his celestial origin.

An Indian may not marry one of his own crest. But he may marry into any other clan excepting an allied tribe. A Crow may marry into any clans except the Frog; the Frog into any but the Crow, the Whale any but the Bear, the Bear any but the Whale, the Beaver any but the Eagle, the Eagle any but the Beaver, and the Wolf, being so different from all in ancestry, may marry into any tribe.

Suppose a Wolf marries a Crow woman; the children are all Crows. They are named after the mother, not after the father. In quarrels between two tribes, as the Wolf and Crow, the children, being Crows, would be forced to join their mother against their father, and he would fight against all Crows, including his own family.

Each crest scattered along the coast numbers many hundreds, and some tribes number thousands.

A Crow is a member of a Crow family, or crest, to such an extent that when in a distant village he would sojourn with a Crow household, and would there be treated as a veritable son or brother. If in the village there were no Crows, then, as the Frogs are closely allied, he would go to them and receive the same treatment as if he were a Frog. So among all other allied crests, the same loyalty is maintained.

The Tsimpseans, or Somalias, are splendid vocalists. They have the strongest and most rangeful voices I have heard. In time and tune they excel. The former has come to them from childhood. All use the paddle, and in harmony with measured time units. Their graceful cedar canoes are propelled through rough tidal or storm-tossed waters to the regular time-beat of their voices. I believe melody and harmony

come through their richly creative imaginations, profound reverence for nature, intensely deep religious feelings, and their sympathy with rhythmic motion in the swaying of trees, the on-rolling of the waves, the eagle's majestic flight, and similar movements. Like the Greeks of old, they see the direct action of their gods or demons in all kinds of activity. The winds, clouds, rains, waters, falling trees, and changing seasons are manifestations of spirits, good or bad.

They are skilled hunters, either on land or water. Their canoes are hewn out of cedar trees. Before metal tools came to them their axes were made of stone. With these they would fell the tree, hollow it out, and shape it into a canoe, the best ever put on water. I have seen canoes all lengths, from twenty to sixty feet. Constant use of the paddle gives these Indians the finest chests, lungs, and shoulders found among earthborn men.

Formerly a chief, particularly of the Klingets, on building his lodge would bury one or more living slaves under each large supporting post. In this manner an acceptable sacrifice was made to the tutelary divinity. When the chief died, one or more of his slaves had to accompany him into the spirit land to continue their service. The dead were generally cremated and their bones and ashes put into boxes, which were placed in small charnel houses, as at this day among the heathen Klingets. Frequently the remains were put high up among the branches of trees. I have seen coffins in trees at heights ranging from twenty to sixty feet.

The totem-poles of these people are large and attractive. A whole tree is required for a single pole. I measured one five feet in diameter and one hundred feet high. They are generally well ornamented, the figures relating to ancestry and heroic deeds. The totem-pole is a "genealogical tree," and well worth careful study.

Some missionary experiences among the Tsimpseans are amusing. One relates that at Port Simpson a man and his wife quarreled. He persisted in sleeping in the

morning, while she had to build the fire and get breakfast. She rebelled; he would not yield. Deciding upon a climax, she arose, cooked the breakfast, and then, while he still slept, she seized a large cat and drew it across his face; whereupon her lord and master awoke and kicked her out of the house. An uproar followed, the clans interfered, and matters looked serious. The missionary talked to the unhappy couple, revealed their folly, and arranged to marry them again. (They had been married by the old custom.) They consented, and promised to be good and live quietly together. Being asked, "Wilt thou have this man," etc., the woman answered, "Yes, if he make the fire," and as they departed after the ceremony the minister heard her reiterate: "You must get up and make the fire!"—the woman's proverbial last word!

The Tsimpsians, as most Indians, are fearless when hunting or fighting. A chief was one day hunting in the mountains. In the evening, unarmed and at some distance from the camp, he suddenly came face to face with a grizzly. He dared not retreat, but closed with the brute, and in a death-grip they mutually embraced. The Indian hugged the animal closely to prevent its using its jaws and feet. He seized the bear's throat with his teeth and held it in a viselike grip until he actually chewed the jugular vein asunder. Torn and bleeding, but hugging each other closely, they rolled over and under, till at last the grizzly lay dead in the chief's arms. The Indian carried his wound-marks to the grave. His son, then a child, beheld the awful struggle. He is now a Christian chief at Lachalsep.

Most Indians have traditions of a flood, and the Somalias have theirs. An intelligent woman at China Hat related the following, and pointed out the "Ararat" of safety. A great storm came; the rains fell, and high arose the ocean waters. Some ran to their canoes and others to the mountain for safety. Those who went into canoes drifted away, and at last, as the flood abated, settled down in distant centers, such as Bella Bella, Fort Rupert, Kitkatla, and Nawhitti. After the flood

had subsided, those who went to the mountain returned and settled at China Hat, their old home. In another place I saw the highest Ararat, and on its slopes, near the top, numerous tall, straight dead trees, standing up like masts—the poles to which the ancient Indians anchored their canoes during the flood.

One could fill a large volume with such traditions.

The Indians' names are full of meaning. We have our Whites, Blacks, and Stringers, the French their *Le Blancs*, the Germans their *Schwartzes*, and the Japanese their *Hatas* (*hata*, a duck). Here are a few Tsimpsian names:

## MALE.

*Aiyā Yāh*, night potlatching of the warriors so as to be ready for the morning fight.

*Lōwouks-hyāsh*, I hear the crow calling.

*Quildh-ho-hōpāl*, darkness.

## FEMALE.

*Koib*, light.

*Laik*, useless, literally crow's feathers.

*Nāmit-mōātē*, the barking of the wolf.

In counting, some Indians have five as the basis, others have ten, and the Somalias have twenty, primarily. The Bushmen of Australia have two or three, and many African tribes have five as the basis. Thus the Australians count, "Yūwēr, būlā, būlā-yūwēr, būlā-būlā, būlā-būlā-yūwēr" (One, two, three, four, five), and the Mannas of Africa, with five as a basis, count from one to ten as follows: "Kidding, fidding, sarra, nani, soolo, seni, soolo ma fidding, soolo ma sarra, soolo ma nini, nūff."

The Tsimpsian language is wonderfully perfect. Inflection by prefix and suffix is extensive, and all phases of thought and feeling are readily expressed.

The verb *love*, in the active, indicative, is thus inflected:

## Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. Shapen-oo.	1. Shapen-um.
2. Shapen-en.	2. Shapen-shum.
3. Shapen-ent.	3. Shapen-shtepnait.

## Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. Shapen-du.	1. Shapen-dum.
2. Shapen-den.	2. Shapen-dshum.
3. Shapen-dent.	3. Shapen-dshtepnait.

The perfect tense is formed by prefixing *cla* to the present, the future by prefixing *dum* to the present; thus, *dum shapenoo*, I shall love.

The languages of the Klingets, Haidas, Quaguts, Tsimpseans, and other native tribes are quite different from each other. The Chinook is used generally by all the coast tribes, except the Klingets, and was manufactured by Hudson Bay Company officials. Many Indians can talk two languages, and some four or five, including Chinook. They are natural linguists. When missionaries first go among these tribes they learn the Chinook, and use it until the tribal language is mastered.

The Tsimpseans in their Christian services surpass one's most exalted expectations. I have been in Methodist field and camp-meetings when the singing and shouting vied with the thunderings of heaven. But I never saw anything to equal the ardor and power of the meetings held in the little churches, chiefs' lodges, and in the open air, by the Tsimpseans. They sing with all their might, and all pray at the same time. While giving their testimonies, from three to a dozen are on their feet at once. I found this common everywhere during my trip of two thousand miles along the coast, and I visited almost every center that could be reached by the small steamboat *Glad Tidings*.

Among the missionaries who have led the red men from degrading savagery to their present satisfactory states, stand preeminently Rev. Thomas Crosby of Port Simpson, a Methodist; the Rev. Bishop Ridley of Old Metlakahtla, an Anglican; Rev. Dr. Jackson and Rev. Mr. Austin of Sitka, Alaska, Presbyterians; the Russian Father Veniaminof, the late Archbishop Seghers, a Roman Catholic; Mr. Duncan of New Metlakahtla, or Port Chester; and Mr. Brady of Sitka, now governor of Alaska.

The Indians are fond of using marble and granite tombstones. After conversion from heathenism they drop their old names and take new ones. Frequently the new name is that of a prominent man in England, the United States, or Canada. From one

tombstone I discovered that Abraham Lincoln was an Indian, and buried at Port Simpson, in Canada. One of the worst men on the coast, a conjurer, on conversion took the name of James Pollard, a very devoted Methodist missionary. On his tombstone are the words: "In memory of James Pollard. Died March, 1891, aged 78 years. He said, 'Oh, don't be troubled for me, for my Father calls me home.'"

Through the kindness of Mr. John Brady, Dr. Wilbur, Rev. Austin, and other gentlemen of Alaska, I was introduced to the most prominent and historic characters among the Klingets. These Alaskans are so like the Tsimpseans of British Columbia that it would be difficult to distinguish the differences. They are, however, not quite as tall or heavy-shouldered as their southern neighbors, and since few, comparatively, have accepted Christianity and civilization, they are living in a much lower state. Yet the missionaries have wrought wonders among them and are steadily advancing in their laudable work.

The wag has been among the Indians, as elsewhere. At the little fishing village of Killisnoo, where I received much kindness from the Fish Oil Company, an Indian named Jake was, through the influence of the company, appointed village constable, and wished to have a sign painted on the end of his house to announce his exalted position. The wag forthwith prepared the following:

By the governor's commission  
And the company's permission  
I am made the *grand tykee*  
Of the entire *illakee*.

Prominent in song and story,  
I've attained the top of glory;  
As Saginaw I'm known to fame—  
Jake is but my common name.

*Tykee* is chief, *illakee* is coast—both Chinook words.

The Klingets have the same crest divisions, customs, and laws, for the most part, as prevail among the Tsimpseans and the Haidas of Queen Charlotte Islands. Of course there are differences. In marriage there is a remarkable custom in force.



In the event of a man's dying, his wife must marry, and she has no choice of the person. She has to take her husband according to lineage, irrespective of his age. I saw one woman of about seventy with a husband of twenty-three years, and another woman of sixty-five with her thirteen-year-old husband. In a third case a young man and his wife were separated so that he might marry an old widow. The missionaries are wisely breaking up this awful custom, but great difficulty arises, especially from the old women. The young men and boys favor the change. They naturally prefer young wives.

History shows that the natives of Canada and the United States have been rapidly dying out. For years I have examined into this question. We may divide them into three classes: (1) the heathen removed from civilization; (2) those in the midst of the whites; (3) those who are in villages under missionary protection. The first two groups are dying out, the latter more rapidly. Group 3 is increasing as quickly as in similar white communities. Group 2 is ruined by unprincipled white men, whisky smugglers and libertines.

Let me illustrate groups 1 and 3. Lachalsep is a Christian village north of the Naase River, under the guidance of the Rev. Osterhout and his wife. Kitex is a similar village on the south side of the same river, and only about four miles distant. In Kitex there is not one Christian. In Lachalsep all are Christians. In Kitex there are no streets,

no modern houses, no well-fed dogs, few young people, and almost no children. In Lachalsep there are good streets, modern houses, a good school well managed, a nice church with a respectable bell, happy homes, many healthy children, and a prosperous community.

The Canadian government has wisely given magistrate powers to the Rev. Mr. Osterhout and ministers of other churches. By this means the smuggler, white or red, cannot escape the law, and sobriety is as general as drunkenness is common among the poor Indians hanging about the outer edges of the white man's towns and villages.

Having visited Japan and the Kurile Islands, I am convinced that the Klingets, Tsimpseans, Haidas, and southern Indians of the coast came originally by way of the Kurile, Aleutian, and Alaskan Islands, and perhaps also from Kamchatka. Adventurous spirits, storm-driven mariners, and refugees seeking an asylum in the "great lone land" of America, in the course of ages met others from Mexico moving north, and others coming across the Rockies from the vast plains beyond; and then the white man came—all with their purposes, loves, hates, hungerings of body, and thirstings of soul, and all hoping for something better here and hereafter.

How earnestly they, we, and all sought and seek to adapt body and mind to environment, and to find the purpose of nature as well as the cause of existence. It is said the seeker always finds.

## THE GOLD SEEKER IN THE WEST.

BY SAM DAVIS.

THE history of the West during the last half century has been an era of money getting. Those who sought the fickle goddess of fortune were men who wearied of the slow and tedious methods of accumulating wealth so long in vogue in the East, and so traversed the death-inviting deserts and blazed a trail through the untrodden wilderness lying beyond the Missouri.

Fifty years of exploration and speculation have marked the mighty conquest of the West, and still the vast army of money seekers, with the banner of greed hoisted high in the air, marches on to engage in the endless conflict with the forces of nature.

The hardy scout who plods on in advance of this murmuring multitude is the gold seeker. The moralist is wont to enveigh

against the lust for money, but root this vice from the breast of man and you push back the advancing shadow upon the dial-plate of western development. Thus it is that the prospector's pick is ever tapping at the door of fortune, clamoring for admittance, and, as a rule, vainly, for where a hundred knock but one receives an invitation to cross the threshold.

The fact that there are so few big prizes in the lottery of speculation does not, however, deter thousands of adventurous spirits from grappling with the desperate chances offered. There are thousands of millions of dollars locked up in the inexhaustible treasure-houses of the West, and one man's chance of finding the key that will cause the doors to fly open is as good as another's. The privations, the hard fare, the weary weeks of travel, the toil that saps the vitality of the human frame, and the endless ebb and flow of false hopes and recurring disappointments that crushes the life out of the heart and mind are all weighed against the one chance of success in a thousand, and that one chance lowers the scale, with the heavy hand of greed pushing down the balance-beam.

Yet in spite of these privations and hardships there is no more fascinating pursuit than the occupation of the gold seeker; for the stimulating elixir of hope puts strength into his flagging limbs and courage into his sinking heart. It is this magnificent stimulus to fresh endeavor that causes the prospector to laugh at cold, hunger, and fatigue, and, rolled up in his tattered blankets at night, to fall into a slumber from which the storm above does not waken him and the dreamy deliciousness of which no pampered dweller of the city ever knows. The hazy summer days of the West, where the sunshine is so golden and the distant hills so blue, where the waters of the running streams leap clear and cold from the bosoms of the mountain snows, and the still night air is laden with the aromatic fragrance of the pine and sage-brush, make a month of prospecting better than a trip to Europe.

But let the man beware who would dally

with this pleasure with the idea that it can be put aside at will. The chains that bind the opium-eater to the slavery of the drug are as ropes of sand compared to the life servitude that claims the gold seeker when once the hot fever of the chase for wealth has taken possession of him. The successful man, no matter how successful, always sees some one else whose wealth annoys him and whose success he would surpass, and when fortune lays the gold of Ormus at his feet he begins to covet the wealth of Ind. The luckless gold seeker never gives up the battle until his life pays the penalty.

The trail which the prospector usually follows is the bed of the mountain stream. It has been a surging torrent in February, but in October its smooth white boulders gleam like skulls in the sun, with a succession of shallow pools connected by trickling threads of moisture lacing the hot sands. From the depths of one of these pools the prospector lifts a pan of gravel and spends ten or fifteen minutes circling the contents about the pan, with a rotary motion such as described by the hands of a watch. The centrifugal force sends the sand to the edge of the pan and the tiny waves wash it over. The heavier gold collects in the bottom, and after the gravel has been discarded the thin deposit in the pan is usually a fine black sand. This is of no value in itself, but it is a pleasant sight to the miner's eye, as it is nearly always found in company with gold. The pan is given a quick shake sideways, and in the dark background of the sand, like stars coming out of the depths of a black sky, a number of yellow specks appear, and the prospector knows that he has found gold.

Let us trace these grains of gold to their original birthplace, to the rocky matrix that held them almost from creation's dawn, until the elements wrenched them free and started them on their journey to the valley.

After the winter has stored its drifts of snow at the head of the stream, the spring comes with its days of advancing sunshine, and then a thousand trickling rivulets course down the sides of the ravines. Not long before an avalanche has crashed over the

same course, bearing with it boulders many tons in weight, and these, like so many ponderous trip-hammers, have beaten the projecting edges of the quartz ledges piecemeal and liberated the free gold imprisoned there. These liberated particles of precious metal drop a little lower with every movement of the soil. The loosened rocks rolling down the mountain side, the gusty winds that whirl the sands, and the patter of the rain, all assist in sending the grains of gold down to the embrace of the mountain stream, whose further mission is to bring them to the observation of the gold seeker. Once caught in a tributary of the main stream, they are hustled along their course, while a thousand stony hammers are ever beating upon them. This beating process reduces the rocky matrix of the gold to sand and thus disposes of it, while the gold, falling into some convenient pot-hole in the stream's bed, awaits the prospector's pan.

The appearance of the gold tells the treasure seeker the story of its wanderings. If the edges are sharp and well defined, it is an indication that its journey has been a short one, while grains that have been flattened out by the grinding and hammering of the boulders until they assume a shape designated by the term "pumpkin-seed" gold indicate the existence of a ledge higher up the stream.

Some of these gold creeks of the West have been so rich that men have lifted fortunes from their beds without ever having found, or even sought for, the mother ledge, while others, not content with the riches cast at their feet, have sacrificed the best years of a life in the vain quest of the ledge which furnished the stream with its gold supply. Many a dying miner bequeaths what meager knowledge he has of its whereabouts to the attendant on his last sickness, with all the solemnity and all the sincere good intent of a father willing a fortune to his children, and the supposed beneficiary of the legacy spends another lifetime in a vain endeavor to reach a solution of the same baffling mystery.

The lost Bryfogle mine somewhere on the borders of the Mohave Desert is a fair illus-

tration of the power which a misty mining tradition has to lure the gold hunter to destruction. Years ago Bryfogle came out of the desert bearing a sack of nuggets that were simply chunks of pure gold. He represented that he had found a mountain of the same specimens, and since that time no less than a hundred attempts have been made to find the spot which Bryfogle had found and lost. Over a quarter of a century has passed, and the bones of scores of adventurous prospectors are bleaching in the hot sands of that desolate region, but still the desert refuses to yield its secret, and the whereabouts of the lost mountain of gold is to the prospector what the north pole is to the Arctic explorer.

Yet while the experienced and professional gold hunter is searching for a mine, with no results, some happy-go-lucky fellow will stumble on it by the merest accident. Some tramp of the hills, with but a crude knowledge of mining, and none whatever of geology, kicks up a piece of rock in his wanderings which fairly glistens with the yellow metal and assays in the thousands. Scrawling a wretchedly spelled location notice on a dirty sheet of paper, and stuffing it into an old oyster can, weighted down with rocks, he rolls himself up in his tattered blankets and sleeps so soundly that his dreams of future years of opulence are not in the slightest degree disturbed by the coyotes who steal his bacon from under his pillow and fight for its possession within a dozen feet of him.

By noon next day he has completed the erection of the rude stone monuments with which the law compels him to define his claim, and begun work upon his prospect hole. We next see him in the nearest settlement, exhibiting his rock, treating the boys, and hunting for a partner.

At this stage of the game the partner comes in on his own terms, and acquires an interest for a little flour, bacon, and whisky, simply because the discoverer of the claim is a man of overflowing generosity and is perfectly willing to give a half interest to the first one he takes a fancy to who is willing to share his loneliness.

These partnerships are frequently formed between men who have had no prior acquaintance before a casual meeting under the circumstances described, and some of these impromptu business alliances, made without the scratch of a pen, have lasted a lifetime, with not so much as a dispute, misunderstanding, or suspicion to mar the even tenor of the mutual relations.

One reason of this no doubt lies in the fact that each one fully realizes that anything like a betrayal of confidence would result in a duel with six-shooters, in which the wronged party almost invariably pulls first and the other dies, according to the time-honored schedule in such cases.

A few days after the partnership has been formed the two men are delving at their little shaft, and, like Romulus and Remus, have begun work on a city that is yet to be. A log hut goes up, the ledge widens as they go down, they sell a small interest, put on more men, erect more shanties, and so week by week the growth of the little camp goes on. The vein increases in richness and the hungry locators from other sections and decayed mining-camps swarm in like locusts. In rapid succession come the quartz mills, the drinking saloons, the gambling dens, the dance houses, and the cheap theaters. In its mushroom growth the little camp becomes a hive of industry and excitement, with its personal encounters over disputed claims, its homicides, and its lawsuits. It becomes connected with civilization by rail, establishes a city government, and with it all the scandals and municipal corruption incidental to a thriving city of the West.

The growth of these mining towns through their short years of seething prosperity to the time they become a refuge for the bats and owls makes one of the saddest of pictures. In Nevada the rise and fall of Treasure Hill is the most pathetic example that comes to memory. Thirty years ago the place was in the heyday of its prosperity; now it lies in the moldy winding-sheet that the seasons have woven about it since the breath of its inhabitation has departed. In its flush days no town in the West could boast of so much wealth *per capita*. A hun-

dred tunnels ran into the hill, and gold poured out of every one. The claim owners were accumulating money a great deal faster than they could possibly spend it, even in those days of reckless extravagance, the memory of which seems imperishable.

On that historic mountain side, now the desolate abode of coyotes and ground hogs, there once swelled a tide of music and revelry; song crowned the wassail bowl, while youth and pleasure took no note of vanished time. The merchants of San Francisco always felt capable of being able to cater to the wants of the fashionable set at the big metropolis, but were always more or less anxious lest their velvets, silks, and diamonds might not please the fastidious tastes of Treasure Hill.

Nothing could ever convince these people that their mineral bonanza might fail, and so the revel of extravagance went on, with the throb of lascivious music and flow of forbidden wine, until like a flash from a clear sky came the first intimation of the end.

The miners in the lower tunnels first became aware that the ore was pinching out, and began quietly to unload their stocks. When any well-known operator is getting to cover, an uneasy feeling is created in the stock-market, but the fact that the miners who toil in the drifts are disposing of their shares sends a shiver down the line.

Within a week after the first miner had begun to sell there was a slump in Treasure Hill stocks, and then a panic. The truth passed from mouth to mouth, and the fact that the veins had pinched out was no longer a secret with even the school children of Treasure Hill.

The words "pinched out" were to the inhabitants of the fated city what the writing on the wall was to the feasters with Belshazzar. The workings were abandoned, the exodus began, and in a few months the Hill was a deserted village.

A few years ago, while on a political canvass with General Kittrell, an attorney whose eloquence had often roused the echoes in the old court-house of the Hill in the years gone by, we reached the desolate

place just at sundown. As we approached the scene, which no doubt brought to his mind a flood of varied recollection, he expressed a desire to make a detour, but the mountainous contour of the country prevented this, and we drove straight ahead. I shall never forget the look, first of surprise, and then of seriousness, that came over his face as he drew up the horses a few hundred yards from the outskirts and contemplated the crumbling walls of the weatherbeaten buildings, which seemed huddled together in the north wind like animals seeking warmth.

To the left was the famous hill from which so much wealth had been extracted, and at its foot a graveyard. A few marble tombstones stood out white and cold in the paling rays of the setting sun, but most of the graves were marked merely with wooden headboards which had been gnawed with the sharp tooth of the sand storm, while many showed nothing but little knolls of earth which the elements had not quite leveled. A gray coyote gliding in and out among the mounds paused in his retreat to face us with his defiant bark. The arrangements of the tunnel and excavations which had poured so much wealth upon the world gave the mountain a pronounced facial aspect, and it was silhouetted against the opal sky like the desert Sphinx.

As we drove through the main street we saw through the windows of the principal hotel a bar and billiard-room. The balls and cues were lying upon the tables and indicated that upon one the last game played was pin-pool, and upon the other, French carom. Empty glasses and bottles stood upon the bar, as they had been left nearly a quarter of a century before by the last of the convivial inhabitants, or else some wag-gish barkeeper had arranged them there to keep green in the mind of the passing traveler the bibulous memories of other days.

Even the horses cast uneasy glances at the empty, creaking buildings, and seemed anxious to move on, while every spasm of the wind caused a shiver to pass through the shacks, as the town took on an undulating motion, something akin to the move-

ment of a field of grain when touched by the breath of a summer's breeze.

Threading our way through a litter of prostrate signs, telegraph poles, and the debris of municipal decay, we pulled out of Treasure Hill just as the night was coming on. As we passed the graveyard, which was growing more ghastly in the twilight, my companion remarked that most of its occupants had died violent deaths, and he recalled two of them—who were among his best paying clients until hung for one homicide too many—as men who never knew what peace was until they were laid to rest alongside their victims.

Of those who had amassed wealth in the days of the Hill's teeming prosperity, not one in a hundred could he recall who had saved a dollar. Most of them had been ruined by the rapid pace set by prosperity, and contracted habits of living that had carried them to untimely graves. The lives of most of them seemed to have gone out, as it were, with the demise of the town, and the original discoverer, long since dead, was not even accorded a place in the cemetery.

Thus can be traced the history of a western mining-camp, from the finding of the first piece of "float" to the uncovering of a ledge, the building of a city, its short-lived glory, and its quick decay.

The lesson taught is that in the accumulation of wealth its retention is in a great measure dependent upon the time occupied in acquiring it. Of the thousands who have snatched sudden fortunes from the flood-tide of mining prosperity, few have been able to retain them. The venturesome spirit who pushes his way into the unexplored fields of danger and hardship is the one to find but not the one to hold.

But let no word of censure fall upon the rugged and daring pathfinder of wealth. While his bones lie in some unmarked and forgotten grave, the riches conjured into existence by his magic touch have been merged into the general circulation of the world's money, and are helping to relieve the poverty and distress of cities whose permanence in a great measure depends upon the rise of these short-lived mining-camps.



## THE YANKEE OF THE SOUTH.

BY ELIJAH GREENE.

THE Yankee of the South, according to my fancy, bears a strong resemblance to the Yankee of the North. In the South, every one north of the Mason and Dixon line is a "Yankee." In the central and western North, a man is not considered a "Yankee" unless he was reared in Pennsylvania or some other state further eastward. Again, a "down-easter" considers the application of the term unwarranted unless the person is of New England origin. I have even been told by some that the true and only Yankeedom is Connecticut. It is enough for my purpose, however, in this connection to say that a Yankee is a New Englander.

This "Yankee of the North"—if you please, this New Englander—enters upon the struggle for existence under many discouraging circumstances. He stumbles over rocks to delve in the sand, from which he snatches a grudging harvest, or pushes his way through a throng of competitors, all as eager as himself, in the effort to obtain some place where he may earn his bread, and when he gets such a place he abides in it until he sees a favorable opportunity for bettering his condition elsewhere.

Withal, the Yankee of the North, as I have seen him, is a cheerful, wholesome fellow, ready to assist you by advice or labor, when he sees you need help. He is voluble, witty, active, ingenious, thrifty. He is more often religious from tradition than from impulse. He is rarely profane, but frequently skeptical. His generosity generally takes a judicial form, and he likes to know all about a benevolence he may be performing. His honor is at stake in fulfilling a contract; not so much in driving a trade.

The Yankee of the North migrated in considerable numbers to the central North between 1835 and 1860, and made the most valuable immigrant that the territory north-

west of the Ohio received. He reached Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, and Wisconsin just in the nick of time. He impressed himself indelibly upon the laws and institutions of those great commonwealths. The history of popular education, public highways and railroads, and many other departments of public activity show that the Yankee was in those states to their advantage during the formative period.

The central North had for its first white population a frontier class from Pennsylvania, Kentucky, and North Carolina. It was a bluff, hardy, hospitable race, admirably adapted to conquering the wilderness, but not exactly suited for building a modern civilized state. Profanity and gambling were almost universal. Religion, in those who professed it, was fervent and lurid. Honor in business required a man to promise unsparingly, but allowed him to fulfil grudgingly. Liberality and benevolence took extravagant forms. Indeed society was only half-way advanced from barbarism to civilization, and a show of semi-barbaric splendor in an action entitled a man to the applause and respect of the crowd. The consequence was, a quite frequent misdirection of effort.

Into this state of affairs the Yankee of the North moved when he left New England fifty years ago and went West. It was quite a transition from the precipitous slopes of his native granite to the billowy stretches of fertile prairie or woodland. He came from a region where he could stand on his own land and throw a stone across any of his neighbors' farms, into a remote country where he was out of the sight and hearing of all neighbors.

And the Yankee of the North compensated his new home for all the advantages it gave him. Out of his close thrift and the careless generosity of the westerner have come the broad, liberal, but judicial char-

acteristics of their descendants, and a living price and strict performance of the contract as the principles of business. If religion has lost some of its fire, it has gained in earnestness and depth.

Now I am coming to the Yankee of the South. In the South, west of the Appalachians, where population is needed, the best immigrants come from the eastern South—notably Georgia. The Georgian, as he migrates west and keeps south of the thirty-fifth parallel, is in many ways similar to the New Englander of whom I have been writing; therefore I call him the "Yankee of the South." He, it must be conceded, is a valuable element in southern civilization.

While Georgia's population is largely rural, it has become quite dense, for the South. Conditions of existence are becoming more difficult, and for many years the Georgian has been migrating toward Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas. When he got as far west as Arkansas he found good land at low prices—in fact procured it from the government by original entry in many cases. But in Alabama the situation is quite different, because the best land was bought up before the war by slave owners, who put every possible cent of their profits into "darkies and land."

True, land in Alabama has always been cheap compared with that in the North-Central States, but, good Alabama land being out of the reach of the average Georgia immigrant, he goes to the mountains, where there is yet much government land for settlement, and where private owners offer it for from one to three dollars per acre.

The soil there is much like the land he tilled in Georgia, and the Yankee of the South does not have to unlearn the traditions and maxims of his calling as he goes to work in his new home in the central South. The Buckeye and the Hoosier have to unlearn much that they knew about farming when they come South.

Although Alabama upland is generally no better than Georgia soil, the Georgian gets all he wants of it for a small sum, and the timber on it is a great consideration to him. The negroes are all tenants on the

big plantations in the valleys, so our Yankee of the South has it nearly his own way out on the "mountains," as Alabama upland is called.

Society in these mountains, among the "mountain whites," is decidedly different from what we ordinarily read about it. I lived five years in one neighborhood where I did not hear a profane word; where the Sabbath was uniformly observed; where a skeptic was a curiosity, and a cotton string was a good enough door-lock. The children were proverbially tractable, and adults easily influenced for the right.

This sounds idyllic, but a northern man rarely succeeds in these mountains. Your typical Alabama mountaineer dips snuff, and cares nothing for glazed windows, improved stock, good fences, or education. He tries to raise enough corn to feed his horse or mule through the cropping season and winter; enough cotton to pay the store-bill, and a patch of "taters" for his own use. Put a man from the central North in such a community, and he frets and fumes about the shiftlessness of the people; he detests the snuff habit, and goes to making a crop as though he were in Indiana or Illinois. The result in most cases is that he goes back North pretty soon, and carries a rather bad impression of the South along with him.

There are possibilities—great possibilities—in the Alabama mountaineer, and the Yankee of the South, innocently, and without any prearranged plan, develops those possibilities. More than likely he dips snuff out of the same box with his Alabama compatriot; but he saws off the projecting ends of the logs when he builds his cabin, and whitewashes that domicile; he puts window-sashes in his house, hangs a tight door shutter, builds a ten-rail fence, makes gates everywhere, builds tight stables and abundant shelter for his stock, plants an orchard, raises his own "meat" (bacon), feeds his cows liberally in the winter, looks up the local markets and diversifies his products to suit them, takes the papers and encourages the schools, raises just enough cotton to keep the children busy picking it in the fall,

and by intensive farming in the use of manures and fertilizers makes "two blades of grass grow where only one grew before."

This kind of object-lesson is not lost on the neighbors. They are not fools, and they soon perceive that building good fences may be done when nothing else is going on, and that driving breachy stock out of the fields always comes in a busy time. They discover that a window near the fireplace is "handy for the old ooman" while she is knitting, and the girls insist that they must have one in the best room, because the "neighbors frum Georgy" have one. They begin to wonder why they should raise cotton with which to buy Indiana and Illinois bacon when they can raise their own meat; and so on, *ad infinitum*.

Note carefully that this Yankee of the South is keen and careful, while his new neighbor is free and open-hearted. You see that he finds much the same conditions in another latitude that the Yankee of the North found in the central North; and the results are much the same. The one broadens in his sympathies and affections, while the other concentrates his aims and energies. The outcome is a more perfectly rounded manhood in their descendants.

Of course it is not pretended here that the Georgia migration consists entirely of farmers. This Yankee of the South is found everywhere throughout the central South, as his northern similitude is found everywhere in the central North. Every business and profession feels the potency of his presence. I have in my mind the superintendent of missions for a denomination in one of the South-Central States, a magic city builder, a prominent lawyer, a learned physician, and several enterprising merchants from Georgia. But the real influence of Georgia life and thought will be diffused twenty-five and fifty years from now through the humble, unpretentious farmers who have quietly settled on the cheap lands of the central South.

Already the Georgians are pushing into the better lands of the valleys, as they become prosperous on the uplands, and need more acres. And as they are acclimated and

understand the regnant crops of this latitude and can affiliate readily with the original population, their assimilation will be easy and natural. It is not too much to hope that they will crowd the tenant negro population into the alluvial districts, and solve the race problem by massing the negro where only he can prosper.

Great migratory lines seem to be latitudinal. The line

Westward the star of empire takes its way rings true. More people have moved westward than in all other directions. Migrations of mere conquest ought not to count, for in such cases the victors live upon the spoils until they become acclimated. Such events as the irruptions of the barbarians, though, will not alter the force of my statement. Where men deliberately change homes in time of peace, they go West in a majority of cases. I have been very powerfully impressed with this tendency, and have called it "latitudinal affinity." I seriously believe that it is a law which all immigration bureaus should take into account when looking for the largest and most permanent success.

Ten years ago the whole state of Alabama was afire with the purpose of attracting northern capital. A train labeled "Alabama on Wheels" advertised the marvelous resources of the state throughout the North; land and improvement companies sprang up everywhere; real estate having become the vogue among investors of moderate means, they were drawn to Alabama by all the arts of the boomer.

The consequence was a wonderful movement of men and money this way. A great many of the men have gone back, but their money was left down here. Out of one window I see the clean-painted smoke-stacks of an idle million-dollar plant; from another I see a half-million-dollar furnace that never afforded a cent of dividends to its projectors; within a stone's throw is a stand-pipe that furnishes water for a system that would be a credit to a city of fifty thousand, but not more than a tithe of that number drink from its hydrants; through my open window comes the tinkle of a street-car bell that

wastes its music mostly on the tree leaves and grass blades along its three or four miles of track; I will mail this matter in a building which is only the wing of a vast projected hotel, the excavations for which are great unsightly holes, probably as near basements of a building as they ever will be.

If "latitudinal affinity" is a real law, the builders of this "magic city" would have done well to look to the East for immigrants. But while the boomers were inducing people from the North to come here, contrary to that law, the Yankee of the South came without the boomers' invitation, but in obedience to the law. And the contravention of law in the one case has been punished, as obedience to law in the other case has been rewarded.

Obviously the market for manufactured products, other things being equal, must exist in the vicinity of the manufactory. Populations constitute markets, and rural populations are the basis of all others. These magic city builders came into a thinly populated country and built fine little modern manufacturing cities all over it. The cheap

land, cheap labor, cheap timber, iron, and coal infatuated men with money, and they forgot to ask, "Where will we sell what we make?" Later, however, they realized the value of foresight in business, for the large sales of products which they expected never came.

Relief for the boomers will eventually come from the Yankee of the South more than from any other source. He will improve markets by his own immigration and by enlarging and elevating the tastes and desires of the present inhabitants. The merchants of the magic cities will look more and more to the country people for trade. The manufacturing plants will shrink to the actual needs of the markets, and then gradually grow as the markets improve.

If what has been foreshadowed here should really occur, it may be the middle of the twentieth century before it reaches fruition; but whatever may be the destiny of these commonwealths, to be determined by the "divinity that shapes our ends," it now seems certain that one of the rough hewers of that destiny will be the Yankee of the South.

## DEFENSE AGAINST DISEASE.

BY E. DUCLAUX.

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TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "LA REVUE DE PARIS."

SINCE science has shown us that microbes are the agents of a great number of diseases, there is scarcely any one who has not asked himself how an organism they have invaded rids itself of them. They are so numerous, so tenacious, so different in their modes of attack, so ingenious in their action. There is the bacillus of leprosy, which sometimes invades all the integuments, deforms them in a fashion that renders them unrecognizable, makes of its host a hideous monster, and lets him live. There is the diphtheritic bacillus, which asks only a tenth of a square inch or so in the throat of a child to make there a toxine capable of poisoning the whole organism. And there is the bacillus of

tuberculosis, which takes years to destroy the lung or other such organ of a sick person, whom it kills by inches. To all these diseases, even the gravest, some persons succumb, but others make effectual resistance. How does nature go about it to face an assault from so many different sides?

Nor is this all. The different human races are more or less sensible or refractory to these different maladies; certain privileged individuals obstinately escape from contagions which surround them with a circle of victims. This immunity is sometimes qualified as natural, which is a short way of saying that its cause is not known; other times it is acquired, that is to say,

it results from a previous disease. It is known that certain diseases do not repeat themselves, and protect those they have spared against a new attack; such are smallpox, cowpox, and anthrax (splenic fever) of men and animals. The organism seems able to accustom itself to endure without suffering from it the penetration of bacteria and their toxins. But this idea does not clear up, on the contrary it redoubles, the mystery.

The contagious agents of smallpox and cowpox are in truth unknown to us. They are seen only by the eyes of the mind. On the other hand the bacterides of anthrax are visible. One can cultivate them, isolate them, follow them into the tissues, and seek out what they become in the animal that they kill and in the one that they spare and leave vaccinated.

Let us take two like animals of the same litter, one vaccinated against anthrax, the other not, and inoculate both of them under the skin at the same point with the same dose of a virulent culture of bacilli of anthrax. Upon the animal not vaccinated we see a local inflammation appear, then fever, then the disease develops with all its symptoms, to end in death when the bacterides have invaded the blood and thence all the tissues. The vaccinated animal, on the contrary, presents almost no swelling at the point of inoculation, and nothing in its appearance, its gait, or its appetite reveals that anything is the matter with it.

So much for the exterior and the phenomena in the mass. Let us now seek more deeply, since we have the means. The most simple microscopic observation shows us that the inoculated bacteria, which invaded the animal not vaccinated, have not developed in his immune brother. They have remained in place and have even disappeared little by little.

What is the cause of the death of the bacteria injected into the vaccinated animal? On this subject the savants have given themselves the reins. Some have said: Nothing is more simple; the liquids of the immune animal kill the bacterides by simple contact, or if they do not kill them

they despoil them of their injurious power. Others claim that the liquids prevent the multiplication of the invaders, which is the source of their dangerous power. All these explanations are purely humoral, since according to them it is only the humors of the organism that intervene to prevent, retard, or render inoffensive the development of the microbes.

It is certain that in many cases when a little of the blood or other humor of the system is borrowed from a vaccinated animal, this liquid, if mixed outside the organism with a drop of the culture of bacterides or any other microbes, will kill in great numbers, if not in totality, the microbes that it encounters. But this property exists also, though ordinarily a little less marked, in the humors of an animal not vaccinated. In reality the microbes perish in these humors not because they lack what they need for living, for they will deport themselves in the same manner in bouillon, which is a good nutritive medium, but because they do not like sudden transitions. Any change of habitat is disagreeable to them, even though they must gain by it. Some protest by dying, others, more tractable and conciliatory, acclimate themselves and after a few hours begin to multiply again.

Furthermore all these phenomena that are supposed to be due to the contact of humors, the death of the inoculated bacilli or their diminution in virulence, are observed in these humors only when they have been withdrawn from the organism; that is to say, when the natural conditions of their action have been changed. Thus the humoral theories tell us nothing exactly, although they contain a part of the truth.

We must then search elsewhere and scrutinize closely what goes on. Let us follow diligently at the microscope the fate of the bacterides inoculated into our two animals. We will see that during the first two hours they behave themselves almost the same. After the period of suspense resulting from the change of medium, they commence to multiply. Then appear differences. While this multiplication is accomplished without obstacle in the normal ani-



mal, we see appearing in the vicinity of the point of inoculation of the vaccinated animal a continually increasing number of those living cells that are called white corpuscles, or leucocytes. These cells are the only ones of our tissues that have movements of their own. Now when a bacillus is within their reach, they direct themselves toward it, seize it, and incorporate it into themselves. Then they commence upon a second, upon a third, so that we sometimes see leucocytes full, crammed with bacterides.

For the leucocytes the microbe is a food that they moisten and digest with their juices. They are then called phagocytes, devourers of microbes.

We see, then, that in place of an action of the liquids of the economy upon the bacteria, it is an action of certain cells of the economy, and our theory, instead of being humoral, must bear the name cellular.

The leucocytes are in permanent circulation in the organism. The blood floats considerable quantities of them and distributes them everywhere. All of them are not phagocytes; there are in the lymph little white cells which do not absorb microbes. In return the columns of movable phagocytes are reinforced by fixed phagocytes which in different parts of the body seize the bacilli that pass within reach.

We do not know how many leucocytes there are in the body of a man. We can only estimate approximately the number of those floating in the blood. Admitting, in agreement with Dr. Malassez, that there is a thousand times less of them than of red corpuscles, their total weight would be about three grains to a quart of blood. Now the most ordinary of the microbe cultures in a quart of bouillon weighs more, and there is more than three grains of bacterides per quart in the blood of an animal which dies of anthrax. Then, at the beginning of the struggle, at the point of inoculation, the forces face to face are of the same order, and, as in our battles, the victory is to him who will bring most quickly the largest battalions.

We see that in the vaccinated animal it is the phagocytal leucocytes that are

charged with destroying the microbes, and that they are of sufficient number for this task. But there are also leucocytes in the animal not vaccinated; why do they not fulfil the same office? In the vaccinated animal there were only a few or not any leucocytes at the point of injection at the moment of inoculation. They come there little by little. How is it that in the vaccinated animal they come in a crowd and immediately put themselves to work, while they remain scarce and inactive in the new animal? Have the leucocytes of the vaccinated animal received a sort of education, due to the vaccinal malady? Improbable as this appears, it is in reality the case.

Doubtless nothing would be easier than to show the phenomena of acclimation or habituation upon the leucocytes, if it were possible to maintain them for some time, living, outside of the organism. At any rate the phenomena can be observed upon beings that resemble them very much. These are the myxomycetes, vegetables visible to the naked eye and resembling a spumous jelly. Place them upon the walls of a glass vase, a short distance from an infusion of dead leaves. You will see them direct their course toward the surface of the liquid and plunge into it their tentacular filaments. At this moment replace the infusion of leaves by another liquid, for example a sweet solution, coming to the same height in the vase. A movement of repulsion is manifest, the filaments plunged into the liquid withdraw and leave it. Then, if the solution is not too concentrated, after a few hours of hesitation they will again set out for the liquid and plunge into it anew. On the contrary, once accustomed to sweet solutions, the myxomycetes recoil when they are returned to the infusion of leaves, and will come back to it only after hours of reflection. In brief, one can educate them, acclimate them to different nutritive mediums, make them shun what they have loved and love what they have shunned.

The leucocytes have, when preserved in the tissues, the same as in their independence, a great power of adaptation by which we can profit. We shall see how.

Let us imagine that we inoculate with the same virulent bacterides a dog and a sheep. The sheep dies, the dog resists. Why? Because by nature the leucocytes of the dog come to the point of inoculation and engage soon enough in the struggle with the bacterides to triumph over them. The leucocytes of the sheep, on the other hand, make only a mild struggle with the parasite. While they are seizing a few microbes, as they do any strange body whatever, other bacilli multiply, so that they quickly succeed in killing their host.

But the same sheep that succumbs to a virulent inoculation is endowed with a certain immunity toward an enfeebled virus, a vaccine, with which its leucocytes contend on more equal terms. There is a commencement of disease, in the course of which the leucocytes, which have had time to grow accustomed to the invader and inured to war, end by being victorious. This experience acquired during the vaccinal malady they preserve a longer or shorter time, and if during that period the danger reappears they are armed and prepared.

Long developments would be needed in order to tell all that we owe to the theory of phagocytes, but a few examples can be given.

Nothing is more common than to hear the cold accused of having provoked the disease known by the same name, an inflammation of the lungs, an attack or even an epidemic of diphtheria or grippe. How has it been able to do this? Surely it has not caused to spring up, ready armed, the microbes of these different maladies. It has only been able to favor their intervention or their action. The cold does not give rise to the microbe, but it benumbs and paralyzes the leucocyte charged with contending against it.

Various other causes may hinder the action of the leucocytes. It is sufficient to bruise the member near the point where an inoculation has been made, to break a bone in the vicinity, in short to give other work to the leucocytes, who are at the same time the police force and the street-sweepers of the organism, charged with making disappear all the dead or deteriorated elements. But

they cannot do everything at once, and while they are working to repair the material disorders caused by the contusion or the fracture, the microbes, that they easily englobe in a healthy member, get the upper hand, because they have free course.

I have thus far spoken only of that immunity which prevents or arrests the development of the inoculated microbe, of the immunity which previous vaccinations impart; that is to say, the training given to certain cells of the organism. This immunity guarantees against a future malady; it is above all preventive. Its type is the protection against smallpox conferred by vaccination.

There is also a curative immunity which therapeutic serums confer against tetanus, diphtheria, puerperal fever, the plague. One could doubtless for all these maladies put in play the actions we have just studied—suppress the effect by suppressing the cause, and that is a service which our leucocytes often render us without our being conscious of it. Many of us have often in the throat the microbe of diphtheria without suspecting it, our sanitary service is so active and silent. If a chill or any other cause paralyzes the agents in charge, the microbe develops and the disease breaks out. It is then that the saving serum intervenes. Upon what does it act, and how?

One can provoke in animals a choleraic peritonitis by injecting into the middle of their intestines virulent bacilli. This peritonitis is not cholera, a disease especially toxic; it is a microbial malady, and a vaccine preservative against it can be found. The leucocytes of a rabbit can be accustomed to throw themselves from the start upon the injected bacilli and make them disappear. The serum of a first animal thus vaccinated can in turn serve to vaccinate a second; that is, to educate the leucocytes of a new animal.

Now as regards the second serum. Cholera is a toxic malady produced by the development of bacilli not around the intestine, as in the disease just mentioned, but in the intestine. When it breaks out, when its poison circulates, the bacilli are masters of

the place. It is then too late to act upon them, and the vaccinal serum of which we have just spoken remains without effect. To a new mode of attack, a new defense must be opposed. Fortunately one can, by accustoming an animal little by little to bear larger and larger doses of choleraic toxins, make his blood a preservative which will neutralize the effect of choleraic poison in an animal inoculated with it. One can, in a word, obtain a therapeutic serum whose introduction into the organism of a cholera patient stops in him the course of a malady declared, as the anti-diphtheritic serum arrests the poisoning of a diphtheria patient, or the antiplague serum cures a case of plague.

There are, then, two anticholeraic serums which must not be confused. The first is active against choleraic peritonitis. It serves to educate the leucocytes, it is preservative, vaccinal. It is powerless against intestinal cholera declared. There is no longer time to instruct the firemen when the house is burning. It is necessary then to employ the second serum, the antitoxic serum, which is no more vaccinal than the first was therapeutic, but which neutralizes as soon as it arrives in the organism the effect of the microbial poison and puts the sick person on his feet again.

Certain vegetable poisons behave in the same way, and have their curative serums, and Dr. Calmette makes at Lille an antivenomous serum which destroys the effect of the bites of the most dangerous serpents.

A guinea-pig will bear without suffering from it at all a dose of toxine a hundred times superior to that which could kill it, on con-

dition of receiving simultaneously one hundred and twenty or one hundred and fifty times the corresponding dose of antitoxine: one and a half grains of poison mixed with fifteen thousandths of a grain of antitoxine.

But it is necessary for this that the animal which we inoculate with this new mixture should be new; for if we operate upon animals that we have previously given immunity against the choleraic vibron, or which we have subjected to anterior inoculations from which they are perfectly restored, these animals will die in a tetanic state. They pay for the relative immunity which they enjoy in one direction by a little more feebleness in another. It is the system of compensation in a field where one would scarcely expect to see it, and we can sum up what precedes by saying that a man even perfectly cured of a disease is not, as regards the properties of his cells, what he was when it began.

The disease which leaves no apparent trace is stamped upon us by an increased or diminished sensibility of such and such of our cellular departments toward living virus and toxins. It has exposed us on one side in order to protect us on the other. As I said ten years ago, "The elementary cells of a sick person, even when recovered, are no longer the cells they were before the disease. Vaccinated, favored with more or less perfect immunity toward some affections, they have on the other hand a predisposition toward certain others, and these new dispositions are the result of the modification of structure and function caused by the development of the microbe."

## ORIGIN OF THE REPUBLICAN PARTY.

BY CHARLES M. HARVEY.

HENRY WILSON'S "Rise and Fall of the Slave Power," published in 1874, while its author was vice-president of the United States, in its chapter on the "Origin of the Republican Party" contains these words:

One of the earliest, if not the earliest, of the

movements that contemplated definite action and the formation of a new party was made in Ripon, Fond du Lac County, Wis., in the early months of 1854, in consequence of a very thorough canvass, conference, and general comparison of views inaugurated by A. E. Bovay, a prominent member of the Whig party, among the Whigs, Free Soilers, and Democrats of that town. A call was issued for

a public meeting to consider the grave issues which were assuming an aspect of such alarming importance.

The meeting thus called was held in the Congregational church at Ripon, February 28, 1854. A resolution was adopted in the meeting that if the bill then pending in the Senate to throw open to slavery the territories of Kansas and Nebraska should pass, the old party organizations in Ripon should be cast off, and a new party, to be called the Republican, formed on the sole issue of opposition to slavery extension. The bill passed the Senate, in which body it originated, on March 3, 1854, and on March 20 the second meeting, participated in by men of all parties, was held, this time in a school-house, at which Bovay was the leading spirit. By a vote of the assemblage the town committees of the Whig and Free Soil parties were dissolved, and a committee of five—three Whigs, one Dem-

ocrat, and one Free Soiler—was chosen to begin the task of forming a new party. At these two meetings was started the earliest systematic work begun anywhere in the country to bring about the coalition of the enemies of slavery extension, who were eventually fused into a homogeneous and aggressive party, adopting the name Republican.

The writer of this article has known Maj. Alvan E. Bovay (his title was gained by service in the war of secession) for many years, and after careful investigation is convinced that the claims which Wilson and other writers make for Mr. Bovay's

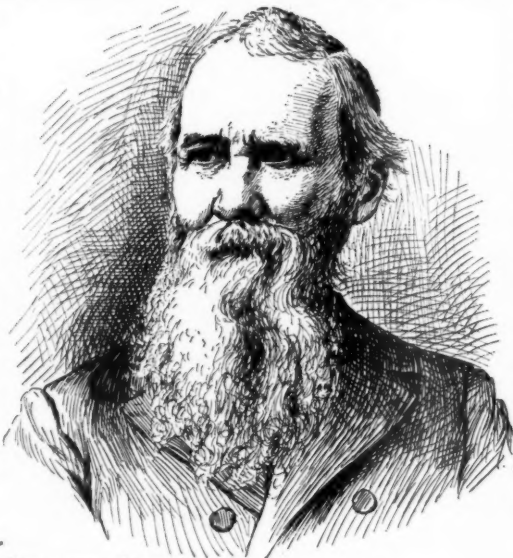
connection with the initial movement of the Republican party are correct. A brief statement of the conditions which led to the partisan upheaval of 1854-56, and of the methods which Bovay and his collaborators employed in prosecuting their work, ought to be of especial interest just now, when most of the members of one or two of the small parties and many of those of the large ones are saying that the time is ripe for the creation of a new political organization to voice the sentiment of conservative persons on the vital issues of the time.

There will be no partisanship in this *résumé*. The fires of passion lighted in the forties and fifties, which later brought on the conflagration of 1861-65, were extinguished long ago. Partisan names remain, but the issues which divided the people in that period have no connection with the questions dealt with by the parties of to-day.

Just before the adoption of the

Compromise of 1850, John C. Calhoun, in a letter to a member of the Alabama legislature, said that the time for adjustments on the slavery question had passed, and that it was the duty of the South to "force the issue on the North." "We are now stronger than we shall be hereafter, politically and morally," he declared. "Unless we bring on the issue, delay to us will be dangerous indeed."

From the southern view-point Calhoun was right. Relatively to the North the South was stronger in 1789 than it was in 1820. It was stronger in 1820 than when Calhoun wrote, and stronger then than it



From a recent photograph.

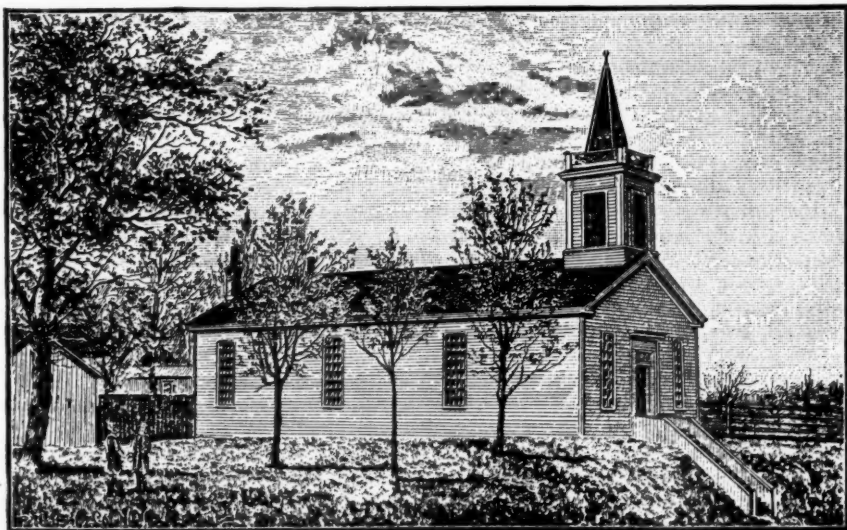
MAJ. ALVAN E. BOVAY.

was in 1861. In 1789 the free and slave sections were almost exactly equal in population. In 1860 the North's population was 19,128,418, while the South's, including slaves, was only 12,315,372. Their number of members in the House of Representatives was not greatly different in 1789, but in 1860 the North had 147 and the South only 90. In the House of Representatives, in which membership was based on population, the North left the South far behind; hence the South, in defense of slavery, tried to preserve the balance in the Senate, in which the representation of the states was equal. When in 1850 California was admitted as a free state, with no chance to gain a new state in the South to offset it, this balance was broken, never to be restored.

The spirit of the Calhoun letter found formal expression in the Senate in 1847, when Calhoun, in a series of resolutions, contended in substance that the Constitution of its own force carried slavery into the territories; that neither Congress nor the legislature had the right to exclude slavery from any region while it remained a territory; and that slavery could not be

prohibited in it except when the territory became a state, and then only by the state's regularly constituted authority. This was the South's new view on slavery. It was voiced in the House of Representatives a few months earlier by Rhett, of South Carolina; it was adopted by Jefferson Davis and the other southern leaders eventually, and it received judicial sanction by the Supreme Court in the Dred Scott case in 1857, so far as a court's *obiter dictum* can give such sanction. This was the antithesis of the Wilmot Proviso. The Wilmot Proviso, proposed by David Wilmot (a Pennsylvania Democrat) in 1846, shortly after the beginning of the war with Mexico, would, by act of Congress, shut slavery out from the territory to be gained from Mexico, and, in effect, from all the territories.

Douglas' bill of 1854 creating the territories of Kansas and Nebraska was an attempt to steer a middle course between the South's position as set forth by Calhoun, and the North's as represented by the Wilmot Proviso. This bill left the question of the admission or exclusion of slavery to the people of the territories, through their legislatures. This was the



From Flower's "History of the Republican Party."

CHURCH IN WHICH THE FIRST REPUBLICAN MEETING WAS HELD.



principle of popular sovereignty which had been outlined by Cass as early as 1847, and which Calhoun dubbed "squatter sovereignty." The Kansas-Nebraska Bill passed the Senate on March 3, 1854, and the House on May 22, and was signed by President Pierce on May 30.

Alarmed and enraged at the project to give slavery an equal chance with freedom in territory from which it had been excluded by the Missouri Compromise of 1820, the North's pulpit, press, and legislatures thundered against the Nebraska Bill from the moment of its introduction in the Senate, and after its enactment Douglas said he could have traveled from Boston to Chicago by the light of his own burning effigies. Out of the convulsion which the passage of this act caused, emerged the Republican party.

Even before the passage of this act many persons saw the necessity for uniting all the opponents of slavery extension who were scattered among the different parties, large and small, into one compact and aggressive organization. The man who took the first practical steps to bring about this union was Alvan E. Bovay. Mr. Bovay was born in the town of Adams, Jefferson County, N. Y., on July 12, 1818. He received a good education, passed several years in New York City, reading law and teaching school alternately, was admitted to the bar, and settled in Ripon, Wis., in 1850. He was elected to the assembly of that state in 1858 and 1859, refused a nomination to the state senate in the latter year (although this would have been equivalent to an election), subsequently declined nominations to other offices, held the rank of major in the Nineteenth Wisconsin Infantry in the Civil War, and was provost marshal of Norfolk and Portsmouth, Va., for over a year. Later he returned to Wisconsin, where he resided until a few years ago, when he removed to his present home in Brooklyn, N. Y.

As early as 1852 Mr. Bovay felt that the end of the Whig party, of which he was a member, was near. While visiting New York in that year he told his forebodings to Horace Greeley, with whom he had long

been acquainted. He said the Whig party's vitality was gone; that its issues no longer commanded popular attention; that the slavery question was absorbing the active minds of the country; that the party would be overwhelmingly defeated in that year's campaign; that it would soon afterward dissolve; and that on its ruins would rise a new and greater organization composed of the scattered bands of freedom's friends, whose rallying cry would be the exclusion of slavery from the territories. On being asked by Greeley—who thought the Whigs would win, and consequently that there would be no need or chance for another party—what the name of this new party would be, Bovay answered, "Republican."

Defeat came to the Whig party in 1852 under such disastrous conditions (the Whigs carried only four of the thirty-one states, and they made in their platform an abject surrender to slavery in their indorsement of the Fugitive Slave Law of 1850) that Bovay felt the time for the new party was close at hand. Douglas' Nebraska Bill brought on the crisis which Bovay expected, and on February 26, 1854, before the bill passed either house, he wrote to Greeley thus:

It seems to me you can no longer doubt or remain passive. . . . The Nebraska Bill is sure to become a law. Slavery has been growing stronger instead of weaker, and as long as its opponents gather in little bands here and there it will continue to grow in power and aggression. . . . Your paper is now a power in the land. Advocate calling together in every church and schoolhouse in the free states all the opponents of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, no matter what their party affiliations. Urge them to forget previous political names and organizations, and to band together under the name I suggested to you at Lovejoy's Hotel in 1852. I mean the name "Republican." It is the only one that will serve all purposes, present and future—the only one that will live and last.

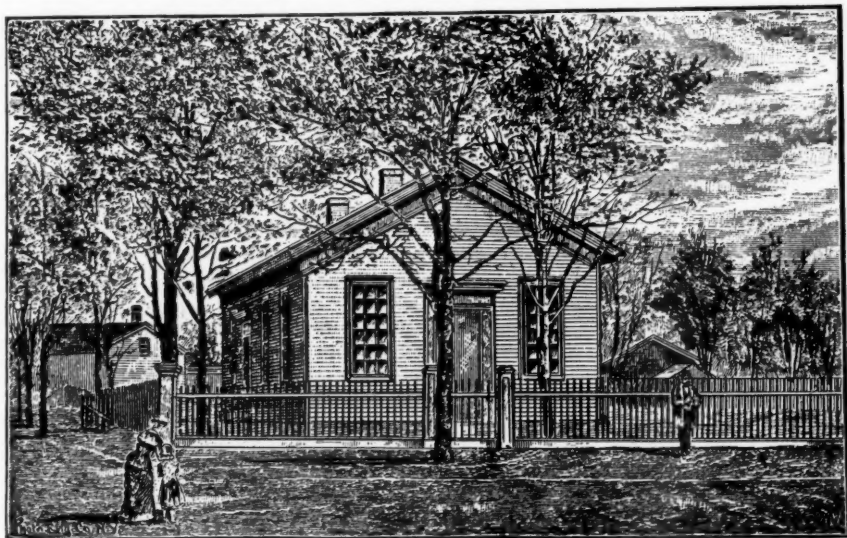
Greeley was not yet prepared for the new party, nor was the East, and in a letter to Bovay dated March 7, 1854, he said:

I faintly hope the time has come which Daniel Webster predicted when he said, "I think there will be a North." But I am a beaten, broken-down, used-up politician, and have the soreness of many defeats in my bones. However, I am ready to follow any lead that promises to hasten the day of northern emancipation. Your plan is all right if

the people are ripe for it. I fear they, too, generally wish (with John Mitchel) that they had a good plantation and negroes in Alabama—or even Kansas. However, we will try and do what we can. But remember that editors can only follow where the people's heart is already prepared to go with them. They can direct and animate a healthy public indignation, but not "create a soul beneath the ribs of death."

In the *Tribune*, though, Greeley took a more decided tone. Often in that paper, while the Nebraska Bill was before Congress, he urged the destruction of party lines and the union of the foes of slavery extension in a single organization. He did

time there were not more than a hundred voters in Ripon, and by a vast deal of earnest talking I obtained fifty-three of them. . . . We went into the little meeting, Whigs, Free Soilers, and Democrats. We came out of it Republicans, and we were the first Republicans in the Union. . . . I had one great advantage in this work. I was an intimate friend of Horace Greeley's, and he would always listen to me on political matters. . . . He did not always assent to my propositions, but in the end he did to most of them, and he did to this one after a good deal of nagging. It was not one letter that I wrote to him, but many, before he displayed the Republican flag in the *Tribune's* columns. I was more solicitous about the name than about the organization. I knew the organization had to come,



From Flower's "History of the Republican Party."

SCHOOLHOUSE IN WHICH THE SECOND REPUBLICAN MEETING WAS HELD.

not as yet suggest the name Republican for the new party, but after the bill was passed he did this in an editorial in the *Tribune* of June 24, 1854, entitled "Party Names and Public Duty."

Long before this date Bovay had, at his Wisconsin home, taken practical steps, as Wilson states, toward the formation of the party. More than once he has related to the writer of this article the manner in which he worked. In a recent letter he writes:

I went from house to house and from shop to shop and halted men on the streets to get their names for the meeting of March 20, 1854. At that

time there were not more than a hundred voters in Ripon, and by a vast deal of earnest talking I obtained fifty-three of them. . . . We went into the little meeting, Whigs, Free Soilers, and Democrats. We came out of it Republicans, and we were the first Republicans in the Union. . . . I had one great advantage in this work. I was an intimate friend of Horace Greeley's, and he would always listen to me on political matters. . . . He did not always assent to my propositions, but in the end he did to most of them, and he did to this one after a good deal of nagging. It was not one letter that I wrote to him, but many, before he displayed the Republican flag in the *Tribune's* columns. I was more solicitous about the name than about the organization. I knew the organization had to come,

but the politicians might easily pick up another name, and a great advantage would have been lost. My friend Greeley valued names too lightly. A good name is a tower of strength. "Democracy" is a word which charms. The influence of the name has been and is marvelous. "Republican" is its only counterpart—significant, flexible, magical—and I was determined to secure it for the new party. . . . I wanted the name to appear early editorially in the *Tribune*, and it did.

It is not claimed here that Bovay is the creator of the Republican party. The spirit was active in 1854, in every village and city in the free states, which would have created that party even if Bovay and Greeley had never been born. Bovay, however,

was the first person who set out in a resolute, persistent, and practical way to form the party; he was the first to suggest the name, and Greeley, through his paper, which had the largest circulation and influence of any journal in the country at that time, gave his valuable aid in making the party project and name known to the country.

Some histories say the Republican party originated in the Eastern States, and New York and Massachusetts are claimed by different writers as its birthplace. George Ticknor Curtis' "Constitutional History of the United States," Vol. II., published in 1896, says the anti-Nebraska convention held at Auburn, N. Y., on September 27, 1854, was the first assemblage which adopted the name Republican for the new party. This is a mistake. In Wisconsin, as already shown, the party had its birth, but Wisconsin was not the first to bestow the name in a state convention. An anti-Nebraska convention met at Jackson, Mich., on July 6, 1854, and nominated a state ticket, which was elected in that year. Jacob M. Howard, one of the prominent men at that gathering, received a letter from Horace Greeley saying that Wisconsin, in its state convention a week later, would select the name Republican for the new party, and Michigan was advised to get ahead of her in this work, which she did. Michigan's was the first state convention ever held which adopted the name Republican for the new party of freedom.

Several state conventions of anti-Nebraska men met on July 13, 1854, which was the anniversary of the passage of the Ordinance of 1787 excluding slavery from the Northwest Territory, and of these Wisconsin's and Vermont's chose the name Republican. New York, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and the other claimants of the distinction of being the first in selecting this designation were preceded by these three states.

The national organization of the Republican party dates from the convention of February 22, 1856, at Pittsburg, which met in pursuance of a call issued by the chairmen of the Republican State Committees of Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, and Wisconsin. The Pittsburg convention formed a Republican National Committee. This body on March 29 called the national delegate convention which met in Philadelphia on June 17, 1856, and nominated Fremont and Dayton.

Why did the Republican party gain a foothold in the Western States earlier than in the East? For these reasons principally: first, the West was assailed more directly than the East by the Kansas-Nebraska act throwing the territories open to slavery; and secondly and chiefly, party organization and discipline being less extended and rigid in young communities than in old ones, new partisan coalitions and combinations are easier to establish in the former than in the latter.

## THE LIFE AND BATTLES OF BEES.

BY GEORGE ETHELBERT WALSH.

ON the first warm, but uncertain, spring day, a few solitary, poorly clad bees emerge from the hive or the trunk of some old forest tree, and race across the fields and meadows in a wild and oftentimes careless flight. The odor of expanding buds fascinates them, and they fly from bush to bush in a vain endeavor to find the elusive nectar, until the sudden

chill of the short afternoon warns them that their home is far distant. The "bee line" in this instance does not always serve to bring them home quick enough. Some may drop by the wayside, to creep under stones and leaves for protection, and others, reaching their home, may find themselves too exhausted to crawl through the tiny hole into comfort and safety.

The apiarist, who serves as the modern guardian to the helpless bees, is on the watch for his belated friends, and as they tumble in little round balls at the entrance to the hive he lifts them tenderly in his ungloved hand—for they are too cold to resent it—and drops them gently into the box, where buzzing thousands lend warmth and cheer to each other.

Even in midwinter, when the sun shines brightly and the air is full of tonic, the apiarist gives his little swarms an airing, and they gain new strength and energy that help them the better to endure their long confinement. In their natural haunts in old forest trees and in hollow posts and stumps the mortality among the honey-bees was tremendous—how tremendous no one can accurately say. An excessively severe winter meant the death by freezing of all the weak colonies, and a serious decimation of the numbers of the larger ones. The natural protection of the trees could never be perfect, and the bees knew it. Instinct taught them to herd together in enormous colonies. The apiarist of to-day could not accommodate the extensive colonies that formerly flocked together in the forest in the winter, and so he separates them into smaller divisions and provides artificial conditions that keep them comfortable. When a colony in the woods gets too large in summer it divides and forms two distinct households; but this division never takes place in autumn. Two weak colonies of wild bees have been known to join forces in the late summer and separate again in spring. This could happen only when one colony was without a queen, or because for mutual protection they were willing to sacrifice one of the two queens.

The modern bee-keeper understands the art of joining two colonies to-day, but it has only been accomplished after long experience and many failures, for the natural antipathies of the members of the two flocks is such as to prevent association except under extraordinary conditions. And yet it is often absolutely necessary for the preservation of both colonies to join them. One becomes so weak in numbers that it

must cease to exist unless it receives the new blood of another colony. When bee-keeping was in its infancy in this country the farmer who kept a solitary hive of bees could not join two swarms, and he practiced inbreeding to an extent that weakened the vitality of his insects. The hostility between the wild bees and the domesticated colony would not permit of union.

But it was not unusual then for a wild swarm to attack the weak colony and either run away with the accumulated nectar in the hive or calmly take full possession of the home, after killing its inmates and throwing out their dead carcasses. Even to-day these bee battles are not uncommon. They generally take place late in summer or early in autumn, when the advancing season has somewhat checked the flow of honey and the eager little insects are disturbed and worried by the sudden reduction in their stores of nectar.

At this time bees may be seen flying about the fields and gardens with a certain restless movement of the head, as if reconnoitering an enemy's stronghold. At the entrance of every well-filled hive several sentinels will be found lingering, and upon the appearance of a bee they challenge it. One of the sentinels extends its tongue, and if the newcomer belongs to the colony it will answer by proffering a sample of its honey, but if the bee should prove an intruder the sentinels pounce upon it immediately and sting it to death. Occasionally a stray bee will attempt to obtain entrance into a well-filled hive in this way, and it will offer a sample of the nectar from its honey sack; but the wary sentinels are not often deceived, and the intruding bee pays the penalty of its temerity.

But when an enemy presents itself at the hive in the fall of the year it is more than likely that it is a forerunner of an army that has arranged a general attack upon the stronghold, and the sentinels are peculiarly watchful and careful in their motions. Sometimes the attacking swarm will try to force an entrance at the front while the sentinels are engaged in killing their forerunner, or again they will endeavor to find an

entrance near the top. In either case, however, the noise of battle soon alarms the other occupants of the hive and a battle royal is suddenly precipitated.

There is strategy displayed in the attack and defense worthy of a general's study, and throughout the whole conflict great intelligence is manifested by the swarms of struggling bees. Inside the hive, breast-works and fortifications are constructed, tier upon tier, and the attacking forces are compelled to pass through holes and narrow cuts where

a thousand

May well be stopped by three.

Consequently the battle is not always to the strong, and a few brave defenders may keep out the whole army of intruders. The movements of the combatants are so rapid in battle that it is difficult to follow them through all of their evolutions, but the plan of battle seems to be very simple. Two bees from the hive are sent to kill one intruder, and the latter always tries to force an entrance, even at the risk of its life. Once inside, it makes room for others of its companions to enter, and then, gathering up its abdomen in as small a space as possible, it assumes the defensive. Two of the hive bees pounce upon it, and collaring it fiercely they seek to find a vulnerable point between the rings of its body to sting it to death. The attacking bee just as determinedly struggles to cover every unprotected spot. If sufficient time can be gained and the attacking swarm is large enough to force an entrance, the badly mauled bees that have not been stung to death will suddenly assume the offensive and pursue the tactics of their enemies. The contortions and evolutions of the various fighters are interesting to the observer.

Should the battle go against the attacking body, the balance of the swarm flies away to seek safety and the dead carcasses of their companions are thrown contemptuously out of the hive.

But in the event of an opposite termination of the struggle, the poor inhabitants are slaughtered. When their fate has been practically decided, many of them turn

traitors to their cause, and in order to save their own lives they join the forces of the attacking party and display great vigor in killing their former companions. But there is honest patriotism even among bees. In every hive there are some who fight to the last and prolong the struggle for hours.

Sometimes the successful attacking party will begin to carry away the plunder to some other hive, and frequently the bees from other colonies will scent the booty and join in the general robbery. The apiarist must be abroad in the land at the season when these attacking parties are flying about. The practical bee-keeper knows by instinct, and by observations of the weather and the nectaries of the plants, when his weak colonies are in danger. If perchance he should discover a war in progress he comes quickly to the rescue of the beleaguered bees. The insects are too excited to be alarmed at his presence, and as the army of invaders enters the hive he quietly dusts flour over them. In a short time he has placed a white badge upon every marauder, and it is an easy matter to trace the little fighters to their stronghold. A puff of smoke then administered into the hive will drive the inmates into their cells and keep them there in a state of alarm until the powdered bees can be removed. Then a small piece of cloth saturated with carbolic acid is hung near the entrance to the hive, and, as all bees associate danger with the odor of this acid, hostilities will not be renewed and the rescued colony will in time recover its former equanimity.

But the most desperate battle is always fought between the royal queens of the hives, and this often occurs when the apiarist artificially joins two weak hives together with a live queen in each. Two queens cannot be tolerated in the same hive. If jealousy did not force a fight between them the industrious workers would quickly settle matters in their own way. But there is true royal blood in the veins of the queen bees, and they come up to the contest that must settle the fate of one or the other in true pugilistic style. The hive workers surround the two contending queens,



as if anxious to enjoy the battle royal, and incidentally to see that the "Queensbury rules" are observed. There is an unwritten law among the bees that both queens are not to be killed, and the two members of the royal household not only respect this but live up to it literally. If they should accidentally be forced into a position where both might be suddenly killed, they withdraw by mutual consent and renew the battle. While many of these battles between queens have been watched by apiarists, an instance has never yet been noted where any injury was known to befall the survivor. One queen is always killed and one remains perfectly sound to perform the functions of her chief office in the colony. The two fight out their battles entirely alone, and none of the workers or drones interfere unless long-established rules of warfare are violated.

The question of introducing queens among colonies suddenly bereft of such essential factors in their community life is not always easily solved. In the spring of the year the apiarist opens his hives with fear and trembling, for he knows not what devastation may greet his eyes. But his chief concern is with the queens. He visits hive after hive to ascertain if the queens are all right. If upon opening the hive he discovers a fine collection of brood and eggs, he knows that the queen is safe and sound, even though invisible at the time, and he goes on rejoicing to another home. But if the eggs and brood are missing, it becomes his imperative duty to obtain a queen immediately and introduce her into the colony. It is true that the bees are rearing queens of their own, and will resent the sudden appearance of a strange queen. The queen cells are small protuberances like peanuts on the edges and sides of the combs, and these must be cut away before a queen can be successfully introduced.

But now a queen bee from the South or an imported Italian queen is obtained and introduced in one of the modern queen cages. So closely imitated is the ordinary cell of a queen bee by this cage that the hive workers are readily deceived. The

cork is removed from the small cage and the opening smeared over with sugar paste. When this is carefully inserted in the hive, on top of the frames, over the cluster, the bees will instantly pounce upon it and liberate the queen by eating through the sugar paste. Poor deluded souls! in their innocence they think they have hatched out a queen to take the place of their dead one, and there is undoubtedly great rejoicing in the colony.

The bees had a hard time of it in our temperate zone before modern science came to their aid. In the old-fashioned straw-covered hives placed in long rows under the orchard trees, the bees suffered nearly as keenly as the ragged, homeless wharf-rats do in our cities. A modern bee cellar, or even a bee shed, where the little insects are wintered in our Northern States, comes very near to providing the ideal conditions for the industrious honey-gatherers. If we rob them of their hard-earned stores of nectar, we return some compensation in the form of good winter covering and plenty to eat in times of adversity.

The ideal bee cellars are dug into the earth, and the floors covered several feet with gravel and finished off with a coating of cement. A small coal or oil stove provides heat in very cold weather, and perfect ventilating arrangements keep the atmosphere free from all impurities. In such a cellar the hives are stacked up in tiers, one upon another, with those containing the weakest colonies on the top, where the air is apt to be the warmest.

In order to winter the bees successfully the surrounding air must be kept at an equitable temperature, and above all superabundant moisture must be avoided. Moisture in the bee cellars kills off the inmates by the scores. Foul brood—that bane of all bee-keepers—invariably finds its origin in bee cellars improperly ventilated. Like members of the great human family, whom they resemble in many of their ways and habits, the little honey-bees find cleanliness very essential to their health. The bees stand the first two or three months of confinement without much sickness, but as the

period lengthens out after that their health and vitality become more precarious. A slight misunderstanding of their nature may cause ruin and havoc among the colonies.

Happy indeed is the keeper if he brings his colonies through the cold winter months into sunny April without mishap. The critical time has not entirely passed, but with fair and intelligent treatment the little creatures will weather successfully the storms and cold waves of April and May. The weak colonies have to be united in the month of April, and this is the time when the battles between queens may have to be fought out. Only strong colonies can ever amount to much as honey-gatherers, and after a severe winter a dozen may be reduced to four or five. The queens have to be dealt with tenderly and fed liberally upon the syrup of honey to induce them to raise broods. Even the worker bees and drones must be given some stimulating food at this season. Frequently sealed honey has to be fed the colonies that have consumed most of their food, and if the time is long before the flowers of the field expand considerable honey will be needed for this purpose. But this liberal feeding and gentle attention will be paid for in the end, for the colonies that come up to the honey-gathering season in good condition are pretty sure to do the best work. Adulterated and prepared foods will be eaten by the bees when their stock of honey has been exhausted, but they never thrive as well on them, and why should we begrudge the industrious little insects the few pounds of honey they consume in winter? The practice of feeding them adulterated sugar and syrup is nearly as diabolical as the old method of robbing their hives in the fall of the year and killing all the bees.

Under proper treatment one strong colony of bees will produce seventy to one hundred pounds of comb honey a year for market, and enough besides to feed them through the winter. From two to three hundred

pounds of liquid honey is obtained from each hive in warm states, by means of the extractor, in addition to the comb honey. The value of the crop runs up into the millions, but because of its wide-spread development in isolated communities no man can say exactly how many tons of liquid nectar are raised to gratify the taste of a honey-loving population. California leads all the other states in her honey products, and the northern belt of states has so far outrivaled the sunny South. In California an apiarist of good standing will own a thousand hives, but in the colder states two or three hundred are considered a fair number. The difference is that the Californian by virtue of his delightful climate has little trouble or expense in wintering his bees.

The inventor has been aiding and abetting the apiarist in his work of extracting all the honey possible from the bees without discouraging them. The movable frames in the modern hives enable the apiarist to peer into the working home of the bees without disturbing them, and one portion may be removed without displacing any of the other parts. After the movable frames and hives came the artificial honeycomb, invented to save the bees the trouble of manufacturing it. When honeycomb is raised for the market the little bees are forced to manufacture the cells as of yore, but if liquid honey is needed the artificial combs are inserted and emptied by means of the extractor many times during the season, the bees persistently and good-naturedly refilling them as fast as they are emptied.

Thus has invention done much for the apiarist and lessened the toil of the honey-bees. Honey has become a necessity instead of a luxury in this country, and the change has been made possible only through the adoption of modern methods of producing it. It should be remembered that bees deserve our respect and protection, and that to kill a bee is to waste a pound of honey.

## WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

### COMMON SENSE ON THE WHEEL.

BY MAURICE THOMPSON.

ONE of the delightful advantages in the use of the bicycle is connected with its easy transportation by rail, boat, or wagon from one part of the country to another. Compare the wheel with a horse in this regard and this point will be sharply projected. The chief trouble is with the railroads, some of which are managed with favorable thought for the wheelman's convenience, while the policy of others seems to be the greatest annoyance to the largest number of bicycling travelers. But no matter what worry may arise on the way, at the end of a journey by rail your wheelman finds immediate solace at sight of his faithful roadster, safe and sound, coming down from the baggage car. There is no delay; he can mount forthwith and be off at his own gait, plunging right into fresh air, new sights, and unfamiliar circumstances. This is the romance of bicycling. Every new road is a genuine discovery. And why should not a delight so pure and so wholesome be woman's as well as man's? It is hers to the fullest if she but take it.

Perhaps there has been a great deal too much worry about what women and girls ought to wear a-wheel. My impression is that the joy of riding should largely outweigh the sense of being stunningly appeared. Comfort, which excludes consciousness of being dressed for a special purpose or in unusual toggery, is of first importance. Riding for pleasure reaches its lowest claim to respect when it coincides with riding for display. Of course there can be no more excuse for dowdiness in dress on the wheel than off it; in avoiding one extreme it is foolish to rush against the other. A girl need not tan her fair face as yellow as saddle-leather by wearing, no matter how hot the sun, a wheeling cap stuck on the

back of her head. A sailor hat of moderate brim and a colorless veil are far better, if securely fastened on. It is easy to contract troublesome diseases of the eyes by exposing them to the direct glare and heat of the sun. Permanent injury to the tissue under the skin may also result from sunburn, thus destroying forever the fine bloom of complexion. Good sense will suggest a safe course between reckless exposure and the other extreme of refusing to ride in the sunshine at all.

There is a great safeguard to the bicycling woman tourist in the simplest and plainest dress. Men as a rule, even low and vile men, instinctively respect a modest, quiet, unostentatious woman; and just as naturally they are apt to suspect a showy or oddly dressed one, or one whose costume has the look of being put on to attract attention in public. Ultra bloomers and mannish attire generally may be all right in theory; but it is well to remember that, especially in rural districts, remote from urban influences, people have strong prejudices in this regard, and if you would get on pleasantly with them you must respect these very prejudices. I have talked with hundreds of excellent and honorable countrymen who firmly believed in every woman's lack of virtue whom they had seen wearing bloomers. It certainly is better to avoid a conflict with stubborn popular feelings where nothing but trouble and danger can come of the opposite course.

A wheeling tour is a very inexpensive and exhilarating outing for a party of congenial women, and there are few regions of country where such a party, if entirely self-respecting, will not be as safe as at home. The main thing is not only to be honest, but to appear so, by both dress and behavior. Whether you appear so or not depends very

largely upon the point of view occupied by those who see you. If you defy local ethics you must not be surprised at inconveniences and annoyances following. You insult ignorance and ignorance resents with vigor, much to your discomfiture. A woman who last summer wheeled more than six hundred miles in out-of-the-way corners of the country, all alone, says that never once was she subjected to unpleasant treatment. Her riding-habit was a brown skirt reaching within six inches of the ground, a brown shirt-waist, a felt hat, and high tan boots. At first she tried a bloomer costume, but found it the cause of almost unbearable annoyances at the very times and places she most needed sympathy and help.

Next to knowing how to dress so as to avoid attracting undesirable notice is knowing how to plan and execute an enjoyable wheeling tour. It is not every section of the country that offers pleasant riding. I know a young lady who, without making any inquiry, went on a long journey by rail to a southern village with a view to "doing" the region round about on her bicycle; but when she arrived she found white sand three or four inches deep over all the roads! Another, who went to a distant town amid the mountains, left her wheel at home, thinking it certain that bicycling would be impossible; yet in fact the mountain roads turned out to be the best she had ever seen. An accomplished tourist would not make such a blunder; but then we are not all accomplished tourists, and must not take too much for granted.

Riding upon paved and level streets, where the asphalt is almost as smooth as ice, has its good points; but genuine bicycling for pleasure demands country roads, between green fields and shady woods, up hill and down, now a long smooth stretch, then a bumpy space, here a rut to be avoided, yonder a stone to steer past, and anon a brook without a bridge. A sense of generalship in overcoming obstacles and avoiding disasters is very stimulating. One likes to assault a hill and take some risk at climbing and coasting. And here is where

most of us need to follow wise counsel and avoid overexertion on one hand and reckless daring on the other. More than half of the grave visible accidents in wheeling come of coasting down dangerous hills; but there are invisible accidents to the vital organs, especially the heart, caused by straining up steep inclines, when it would be far easier to walk. Women are more apt than men to suffer organic lesion of one kind or another from too great physical exertion, and their hurts are more difficult to cure. They cannot be too careful. The best measure of the strain upon one's vital centers in riding is the action of the heart. Any considerable augmentation of heart action affects the breathing. It is time to check your pace when your breath begins to shorten.

It has been recently said by some physician, and the saying has gone the rounds of the newspapers, that athletes are short lived. It would be better to say that abnormally developed men and women are short lived. The true athlete, man or woman, is not overdeveloped, or unevenly developed. Brain, heart, lungs, muscles are equally and correlatively sound and active. Your bullet-headed sprinter whose legs and back have absorbed his brain is not an athlete, no more is the prize-fighter whose chest and arms give him the appearance of deformity, so huge are they. Certainly the woman whose physical training has destroyed her soft symmetry cannot claim perfection of feminine physique. In a word, a monster is not an athlete, and an abnormally developed being is a monstrosity.

The value of bicycling as an outdoor exercise does not lie in its tendency to make Amazons of women and gladiator-like animals of men. The mind as well as the body must feel the recreation and gather in from air, sunlight, sights, and sounds the elements of perfect growth. This fine exhilaration of wholesome activity is not to be overindulged and turned into a debauchery. We must know when to quit and how to turn our new fund of health and delight to best account.

## WOMEN AND GIRLS IN SWEAT-SHOPS.

BY FLORENCE KELLEY.

CHIEF INSPECTOR OF FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS FOR THE STATE OF ILLINOIS.

**I**N the sweat-shops of Chicago there were found, in 1896, about seven thousand women, and rather more than one thousand girls under the age of sixteen years. This does not include the children who sew on buttons or fell seams in tenement rooms with the other members of their families; it includes merely such as the factory inspectors, while making their rounds, found in shops which the law places under inspection. While the average in all manufacturing industries in Illinois is forty-five children to one thousand male employees over sixteen years of age, in these shops the number rises to one hundred and eighty-six children to one thousand, or almost the ratio of a child to every five men. Moreover, a large part of the women in these shops are girls between sixteen and twenty years of age.

Technically, a sweat-shop is a tenement-house kitchen or bedroom in which the head of the family employs outsiders, persons not members of his immediate family, in the manufacture of garments or cigars for some wholesaler or some merchant tailor. In Illinois, since 1893, it has been a misdemeanor to maintain this form of shop. The factory inspectors, therefore, prosecute every tailor or cigar-maker whom they find working in this way. Hence the tailor now usually hires a room adjoining the flat in which his family lives, nails or screws the connecting door firmly shut, and defies the inspectors to interfere with him. If he draws the nails or unscrews and opens the door on Sundays and in the dull season there is no ground of prosecution, for the inspector calling at such a time does not find manufacture actually carried on during the visit. It is rare now to find a sweat-shop, in the proper sense of the word, in active operation; but shops of the kind just described have increased in the past four

years and are still rapidly increasing. The name sweat-shop now attaches indiscriminately to any shop for the manufacture of garments or cigars in any tenement-house; and it would probably contribute to the intelligent discussion of the subject if we could substitute for this ugly word of ill-defined meaning the more general term tenement-house shop.

The women and girls found at work in these shops in Chicago are of eight nationalities: Bohemians, Poles, Russian Jews, Italians, Germans, Swedes, Norwegians, and Danes. Very few of them speak English, and fewer still read or write it. In prosecuting sweaters who have employed girls under fourteen years of age in their shops we have sometimes been obliged, when placing a child upon the witness stand, to employ an interpreter in order to obtain replies to such simple questions as, "What is your name?" "How old are you?" "Where do you live?" "Have you worked for this man?" In numerous instances the child who thus required the services of an interpreter for a conversation in words of one syllable had been living several years in Chicago, in the densely foreign colonies which form a large part of the city.

This isolation of the different groups, by reason of their having no common language, forms one of the most serious obstacles to united effort on the part of the sweaters' victims for any improvement of the conditions under which they work.

Nor does there seem to be any reasonable hope of change in this respect, since it is in the districts in which sweat-shops abound and foreign colonies are densest that the Chicago Board of Education leaves the largest numbers of children unsupplied with public school accommodations.

In the Polish sixteenth ward there are



some eight thousand children in excess of the seating capacity of the public schools; and in this ward we find a large proportion of our illiterate children in the sweat-shops. In the nineteenth ward, where the children between eight and fourteen years are some three thousand in excess of the public school sittings, one of the commonest street sights is a group of women and girls in the short skirts of the south Italian peasants, carrying on their heads enormous bundles of trousers, knee-breeches, or cloaks, as they walk from the sweat-shop to their tenement dwelling. When the bundle reaches home, all the children in the tenement-house who are able to hold a needle gather about the bundle and do their share of the sewing, quite irrespective of school hours, and chattering all the while in their native patois.

There is a wide-spread belief that the prevailing cheapness of ready-made clothing is due to the utilization of the ill-paid labor of women and children in these tenement homes and shops; that the wage-earner in the non-sweated trades profits by the sufferings of these sweaters' victims, and wears better garments by reason of their poverty and the degradation of this great trade. This is, however, the exact reverse of the truth. The cheapness of our garments is attained in spite of the sweating system, not because of it. Indeed, it is doubtful whether the fall in prices of garments is commensurate with the fall in the prices of the cloth of which they are made. Certain it is that cloth is vastly cheaper than it was thirty years ago. The methods of placing goods of all kinds upon the market (garments and cloth for making garments included) have been revolutionized in the direction of cheapness within the memory of all of us. That part of the work of making garments which lies outside of sweat-shops has also been cheapened by the general application of steam machinery to garment-cutting. These three great modern improvements have enabled the corporations which control the garment trade to prolong the life of the foot-power sewing-machine and the tenement-house sweat-shop.

The purchasing public, made gullible, perhaps, by its own greed for bargains, has willingly believed that in this one set of trades alone primitive machines and petty shops maintaining a multitude of middlemen were really cheaper in the end (because they employ the worst paid women and girls to be found in the field of manufacture) than well-equipped plants, with power furnished by steam or electricity and conducted by managers of higher intelligence.

It has become an axiom in political economy that high-priced labor stimulates the application of machinery. On the other hand, the presence in the sweat-shops of girls who sew on buttons and run errands for wages ranging from thirty cents to seventy cents a week, and of women who sew at foot-power machines for \$3.00 to \$5.00 a week from ten to twenty hours a day during the five to seven months which form the busy season, and receive relief from public and private charities during the remainder of the year, distinctly tends to prolong the present primitive and belated equipment of this part of the garment trades. It is, perhaps, not too much to say that the seven thousand women and the thousand girls in the sweat-shops of Chicago present a serious obstacle to the process of lifting the garment trades from their present degradation to the level of the factory trades.

Under the sweating system, the wholesaler shifts the burden of rent from himself to the tailor who sews in a tenement-house kitchen or bedroom. The wholesaler farther avoids the risk attendant upon maintaining a plant equipped with steam or electricity throughout the dull season. He offsets, as far as he can, the added expense of a horde of middlemen, by subdividing the work of the women and girls in the shops and simplifying it to the utmost extreme, so that skill in the worker is reduced to the last degree, and wages follow skill in the direction of zero. Hence we find in the sweat-shops "hand girls" whose backs grow crooked over the simplest of hemming, felling, and sewing on buttons, and machine girls whose exertion of foot-power entails tuberculosis and pelvic disorders ruinous to

themselves at present and to their children in the future. The foul, ill-ventilated, often damp shops, the excessive speed and intensity of the work, the ceaseless exertion of the limbs throughout interminable days, and the grinding poverty of these workers combine to render consumption the characteristic disease of these trades. The very youth of the workers increases their susceptibility to injury and disease. Young backs grow crooked over the machines, young eyes and membranes are irritated by the fluff and dust disengaged from cheaply dyed woolen goods by flying needles. The eagerness of young workers is stimulated to the highest pitch by ill-paid piece-work and the uncertainty of its continuance.

All this wretchedness, attending this belated survival of primitive organization in a great industry, surely cannot permanently survive in the face of the advantages which

mechanical power possesses over foot-power. It is only a question of time when the garment trades shall be placed upon the factory level.

This change, however, cannot reasonably be expected of the corporations which control the garment trades, or of the growing intelligence of the sweaters' victims. It will be brought about, if at all, by an enlightened public's refusing to wear tenement-made garments, and embodying its will in prohibitory legislation carried much farther than the tentative measures of regulation now in force in New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Illinois, and Ohio.

A necessary preliminary to this revolt against sweater-made goods is a clear perception of the truth that no one (except possibly the wholesaler) profits by the semi-pauperism and suffering of the women and girls who work in sweat-shops.

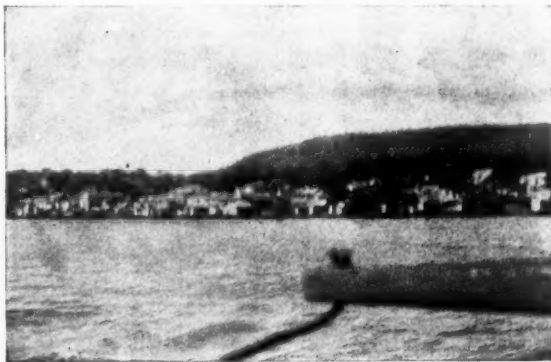
# STREET LIFE IN JEREMIE, HAITI.

BY LILLIAN D. KELSEY.

JEREMIE, one of the most important seaports of our tropical sister republic, and noted as being the birthplace of the elder Dumas, lies on the northern coast of the western peninsula of the island of Haiti, facing a little bay the waters of which are often so turbulent as to prevent landing.

Seen from the sea, Jeremie presents a most picturesque appearance, lying as it does along the water's edge, its principal street running parallel with the bay and its houses rising along the steep mountain side in terraces, and having for its background

the beautifully green range of Cartaches Mountains, the peaks of which attain a height of five thousand feet. But, like many another tropical city, Jeremie is much more attractive if viewed from a distance.



SHORE VIEW OF JEREMIE.

Our first glimpse of Haitian manners was not reassuring. Scarcely had we dropped anchor in the little harbor when we were surrounded by a fleet of lighters, manned by

natives in the very scantiest undress—sometimes no dress at all—each fighting for the first place. So great was the struggle around us that one, seizing a bottle, broke



VIEW OF JERÉMIE FROM THE OLD FORT.

off the neck against the gunwale of his boat and proceeded to stab his competitor in the throat with the jagged edge of the broken bottle.

Nor was our reception at the landing-wharf hospitable. A gorgeous Haitian soldier, resplendent in blue and gold, awaited our coming, drawn sword in hand, surrounded by a shrieking, gesticulating mob of half-naked negroes, and in the almost unintelligible Haitian French at once forbade our landing. No one noticed him, and our boat was steadily pulled around to the landing-steps. The soldier advanced, brandishing his sword and raising his voice in remonstrance. Headed by our escort, who knew the country, our party disembarked and mounted the steps, fairly pushing the jabbering official aside. We then walked up the wharf, unmolested, and followed by the derisive shouts of the crowd, who rejoiced in the discomfiture of the soldier and

were equally pleased to bring up the rear of our little procession. So much for Haitian authority.

The entire population of Jeremie seems to live in its narrow, ill-paved streets. This does not seem remarkable when one has a glimpse into the wretched hovels which do duty as homes among the lower classes of natives. There is a tiny room affording shelter from sun and rain, and a few pots and pans in which to cook the necessary food over a few bits of wood or charcoal, and in many cases this is all.

The main street of the city, which extends for two miles or so along the water front, is amusing and very characteristic. Locomotion is difficult, and is impeded not alone by the traffic of the street but by innumerable long-nosed, long-legged, black pigs. These animals have the characteristics of greyhound puppies rather than those attributes ordinarily supposed to belong to



TRAFFIC IN THE MAIN STREET, JERÉMIE.



A FAMILY GROUP IN JEREMIE.

the broad-backed pink and white porker with which civilization is familiar. Fatness is their least recommendation, but their ability to get out of the way of danger is most remarkable. Yellow dogs of all sizes and degrees of emaciation, both living and dead, lie about in the sun. Little donkeys, of reflective cast of features, and so heavily laden as to appear a moving bundle of sugar-cane, stand about sidewise and nearly fill the street, arousing one's astonishment at the wondrous collection of merchandise which can be secured to their backs and still leave room for a boy to ride. Black babies, clothed for the most part in their native tropical sunshine, but fat and shining, are constantly under foot, or held up for exhibition by proud mothers. Among these smiling infants two were especially noticeable for their costumes. The first was arrayed in red and white striped stockings and a pair of shoes, these articles constituting his only raiment; while the second,

with equal simplicity of attire, had a man's vest thrown over his fat shoulders and a silk hat upon his woolly head. These, however, were aristocrats among the general assemblage of children.

The women were for the most part tall, and had the peculiar, graceful carriage given by practice in carrying articles upon the head. They were nearly all gowned in the "princess," or flowing, style of draperies, and just at present the correct Haitian mode demands a train. They looked strange enough, these tall, splendidly formed women, barefooted and barelegged, trailing from eight to twelve

inches of their sole garment after them along the unevenly paved and dirty streets. Of course they all wear turbans of the most gaudy description—green, red, and yellow plaids—and their heads make vivid spots of color along the narrow, dark streets.

The rows of shops along the main street are most uninviting. They are small, dark,



VIEW OF THE MAIN STREET, JEREMIE.



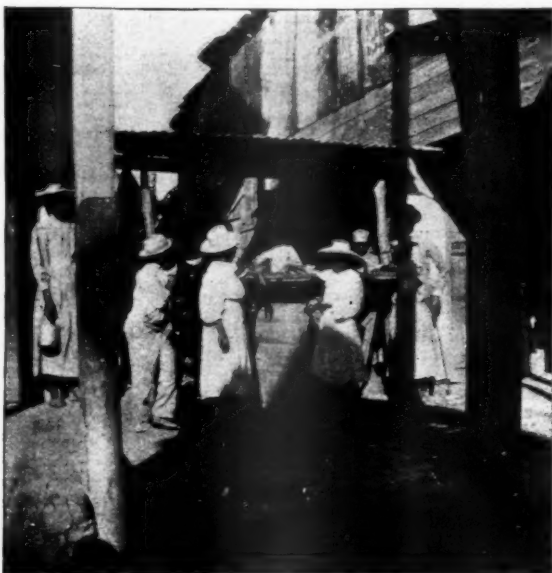
TWO NATIVE HAITIANS.

and cluttered inside, with little stands out on the street displaying here a small heap of candles, there a portion of rock salt or some specimens of the coarsest grade of pottery. There is absolutely nothing to tempt the buyer; only the necessities of life are exposed for sale. A meat market was one of the most characteristic shops. It consisted of two or three boards supported upon barrels and covered by a light board awning. Upon the boards which served as a counter were displayed two or three unwholesome looking bits of meat and a primitive pair of scales composed of two boxes hung by a balance—all this exposed to the glow of an intensely hot tropical sun, the mercury standing at about ninety. In spite of it all, the shop was well patronized.

There was not a white face seen, save among our own little company. White people are not wanted in Haiti, which is in every sense of the word a "Black Republic." Indeed no white man can acquire land in the island or be elected to any office. Hence it is that

Haiti, with all her grand scenery, and a climate where almost everything can be grown, is practically going back to barbarism; and one hears on every hand stories of cannibalism in her unexplored mountain regions and miserable poverty and oppression in her cities. Poverty, however, has few terrors here, for there is no cold, the earth produces fruits and vegetables enough to sustain life, and the use of clothing, as has been intimated, is reduced to its lowest terms.

Back a little from the water and the main street are the more comfortable houses of the better class of residents. The one to which we were invited as guests looked cool and pleasant after the glare of the streets. The house, while destitute of a chimney and of window-glass, as are all the houses in Jeremie, was a neat, two-story cottage reached by a narrow court, and had



A JEREMIE MEAT MARKET.



## Woman's Council Table.

### STREET LIFE IN JEREMIE, HAITI.

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a balcony along the upper story looking off into a garden splendid with tropical bloom. A cool, prettily furnished dining-room opened into an inner sitting-room or office with a polished floor, and that in turn opened into a beautiful garden filled with roses and many graceful palms. On the second floor were two or three large bedrooms, furnished with high-post beds and wardrobes, while along the front stretched the large and well-appointed drawing-room, filled with furniture of a modern type, its polished floor covered by a handsome rug, and its walls adorned with pictures. In the center of the room was a fine ebony table upon which stood a large artificial palm, in striking contrast with the good taste which prevailed elsewhere in the house, and also with the many fine specimens of natural palms waving their fronds almost into the open windows. In these Haitian houses, as in those of all tropical countries, the kitchen is detached, save in the instances where there is but one room to serve for all purposes, as is more often the case than not.

Amusements in Jeremie are few. It is so remote from all touches of civilization as to constitute a little world in itself. It is true there are the omnipresent Haitian soldiers quartered on the hills near the town, with their band of music, and there are the feast-days of the Romish Church, which, if not the established religion, is by far the most popular one; but of the amusements of the great world Jeremie is destitute.

Intercourse with the neighboring cities of even the island of Haiti is made possible only by steamers or sailing vessels, there being few roads in Haiti passable for anything but a mule. Traveling in the interior is, moreover, extremely difficult on account of the height and inaccessibility of the

mountain passes, so that Jeremie, as well as the other cities of the republic, is denied the civilizing effect of mingling with the outside world. In fact it suffers with the whole island from the unstable government and the frequent revolutions.



A SUBURBAN COTTAGE, JEREMIE.

With laws so unfavorable to white settlers, capital to bring out the great natural resources of this wonderfully fertile island is not forthcoming. There is no impetus given to road-building, which would open up the country and give the planters on the uplands an opportunity to get their produce to ports, and even the Haitians themselves have no confidence either in each other or in their officials.

This lack of confidence among the people in their rulers, and over-confidence among the officials in their ability to intelligently govern this large and fertile island, has contributed in no small degree to make the government the unstable thing it is today, and until inducements can be held out to investors, and the natural resources of Haiti opened up, it not only can never rise above its present semi-barbarous condition, but must inevitably sink lower and lower in the scale of civilization.

## HOW ARTIFICIAL FLOWERS ARE MADE.

BY ETHEL WALBERT.

THERE are women who make artificial flowers and crape paper decorations, and more recently feather flowers and ornaments, in their homes, and then sell them upon the streets or at the stores, working daily and laboriously, in season and out of season, to supply the demand, which seems never to slack in this country.

But if any one ever imagined that the artificial flowers made in private houses supplied the trade, enlightenment should be sought in some of the large establishments in or near New York City, where skilled operators turn out tons of these ornaments every week. There is one plant not twenty miles from the city hall where \$30,000 worth of artificial flowers and feather ornaments are annually made for the trade.

All the varieties of flowers and ornaments used in the millinery trade are manufactured in this factory, and the owners of it are quick to feel the pulse of the fashionable world—in fact to anticipate Dame Fashion in her uncertain selections. Before the Paris fashions have been telegraphed across the ocean, or the ideal cuts of fancy head-gear have been drawn by artists' hands, the manufacturers of artificial flowers and feather ornaments have received their private tips and are turning them to good account. The stamps are made and ready for operation long before the season has arrived for wearing the hat trimmings.

The stamps are nothing but sharp steel cutters made of the size and shape of the flowers, and a boy can cut out with one of these stamps about two thousand flowers a day. The flowers are made chiefly of good muslin, velvet, satin, and silk. Unless the flowers are to have white petals, the sheets of muslin or silk are dyed before they are passed over to the cutters. The aniline dyeing solution is heated in great copper boilers by steam, and the sheets of muslin are dipped into the solution, then dried, run through a

wringer, and finally stretched upon frames. Great yellow, red, blue, and brown sheets of material come out of the dyeing part of the establishment and are hung upon the stretchers in the drying-room.

The next step in the process is sizing. A stiffening coat of dextrin and starch is applied evenly over the backs of the sheets while they are stretched on the frames, and when it has dried it gives a stiffness to the material that is very essential to the future flowers made from it.

The yellow sheets, the blue, the carmine, and the white sheets are laid separately into piles, one upon another, to the number of ten or twelve. They are smoothed out carefully with the hand, stretched, and pressed until there are no wrinkles. Then they are laid over an oval-topped leaden block. The cutter comes along with his steel stamp, and by means of a wooden mallet drives the sharp tool through the several thicknesses of prepared material, and cuts out the petals for about a dozen buttercups, daisies, or lilies. Again and again this is repeated until every part of the overlapped sheets has been riddled with holes. The remnants are cast aside and new sheets are brought to take their place.

In another room a girl is steadily engaged in turning back and forth the handle of a machine that looks much like an ordinary copying-press. But she is not taking copies of letters; she is veining the flower leaves and petals that the cutter has prepared for her. The veining machine is curious but simple in its construction and operation. The veins of the different flowers are made in two dies, one fitting into the other. The girl takes a petal from the heap of these brought into the room on trays and places it inside the bottom die, and then fits the top one over it. The two dies are placed under the press, a sharp turn of the wheel presses the veins into the stiff muslin petals,

and the work is done. In the course of an hour the girl will stamp the veins of several hundred flowers, keeping pace with the boy or man engaged in cutting.

Probably in another part of the room a second girl will be manipulating the gofer. Gofering is merely a simple process of giving a deep, cup-shape effect to flowers that need it. The gofer, like the cutter and veiner, must be made differently for different flowers. The instrument is merely a ball of steel attached to a handle half a foot long. This circular steel is heated, and then waxed and pressed upon the flower petals placed on a cushion or pad. The heat and pressure combined produce the peculiar curl noticed in certain flowers.

The flowers are now ready to be put together. The stamens, petals, leaves, and other parts of the flowers have been made by the processes described. Besides the muslin, velvet, linen, and silk which compose the petals, the artificial flowers require wire, tissue paper, wool, corn-meal, jute, and muslin tubing. The stems are made of wire, the yellow stamens are made of coarse thread to which corn-meal is attached by means of rubber gum. The center of daisies are mostly made of wool or cotton dyed yellow. Muslin tubing covers the stems of the flowers, and the wire is passed through the center after it has been fastened to the flowers. The different parts are stuck together with good gum. Individual hand work is required in all this, for no machinery can put the flowers together. The best ingenuity of man is baffled at this point.

The women become experts in their line of labor, however, and make the flowers rapidly. The ordinary varieties require much less skilled labor than orchids, tulips, roses, and some of the more elaborate blossoms. In making white and yellow flowers no further coloring is needed than the simple work of dyeing the sheets of muslin before the stampers cut the petals and leaves out. But some of the other blossoms have to be colored with a brush. This is done by an artist when the petals come fresh from the cutter's department. Two dozen or more are spread out on a tray, and with deft fin-

gers the artist touches one after another with the dyes prepared for the purpose. Some of the velvet and silk flowers sell at such high figures that a fair attempt at artistic painting can be given to them, and after they have been put together the artist finishes them off with a few dabs of the brush. Where special orders are given, each flower is marked separately, and no two are made alike; but these are only for the very expensive hats.

In the same establishment thousands of feathers are manipulated for the trade. Lately feather flowers have come greatly into vogue for hat trimming, for lamp-shade decoration, and for general house ornament. Since the state laws prevent the killing of many plumage birds in this country, the dealers rely largely upon importations for supplies. It is conservatively estimated that about a million plumage birds are imported into this country annually for the trade. Great quantities of turkey, goose, and chicken feathers are also used.

The feathers used for flowers are cleaned, dyed, and then artificially curled to resemble flower leaves. An ordinary lily would be made of five feathers about six inches long. The stiff quill would be slit in two with a sharp knife and the feather pressed backward to resemble the lily petal. These five would then be joined together at the base and wound around with wire and muslin.

There are about five hundred different varieties of birds' feathers used for hat trimmings. The birds are rarely shot for the millinery trade, but are killed with blow-pipes or snares. The entrails are taken out of the birds and the skins are sprinkled with the ashes of burned wasps' nests to keep out vermin and are then stuffed with cotton. In this condition they are shipped into this country. All prices are paid for them, from two cents apiece for the common kinds to several dollars for fine ostrich-plumes.

The feathers are sorted out at the factory and those to be dyed are fastened in a row to strings. Then they are dropped into the dyeing pot and a few minutes later they are put through a wringer. When they come forth from this instrument, with most of the

water wrung out of them, an operator seizes a string full and beats them down upon a paper until they are thoroughly dry. It takes from ten to fifteen minutes to operate one string full in this way.

The feathers are next steamed. The steamer is made of copper and is prepared specially for this purpose. There are rows of conical shaped tubes on the top of the boiler through which dry steam passes. By holding them into the steam for a few minutes the operator is enabled to straighten them out with the fingers. When they have been made perfectly smooth the edges are trimmed off for the next process.

The feathers are either curled or covered with jet or frosting. The curling is a simple process, and one that is known to every woman. The barbs that curl naturally and easily are merely drawn over the face of a blunt knife. If this is repeated several times a delicate, drooping curve can be obtained. But those which refuse to curl so easily are subjected to the doubtful appli-

cation of the heated iron, which if not very carefully used will ruin them. All dull-colored feathers are dyed black, usually with logwood and sulphate or acetate of iron. The feathers that are to be frosted or covered with jet receive different treatment, although many of them are curled before the frosting is put on. Most of the colored frostings are made of gelatin, but gold *metallik*, silver, and copper are also used. These materials are generally applied by means of melted rubber gum, which when it hardens holds them securely in place.

There is nothing mysterious in all these processes of preparing artificial flowers and feathers for the millinery trade—nothing, in fact, that any woman with ordinary intelligence and ingenious resources could not accomplish on a smaller scale. The cutters, veiners, and gofers can be made by any mechanic, and the latter two have even been made of hard wood for home use, thus greatly facilitating the amateur practice of the business.

## THE YOUNG GIRL IN FRANCE.

BY EUGEN VON JAGOW.

TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN.

THE young woman in France of the so-called better classes—and it is only of such we shall speak in this article—is in intellectual development far behind her English, and even behind her German sisters. The latter, in fact, rank midway between the pretty liberally reared English girls and the too liberal Americans on the one side, and the dependent French girls on the other. You cannot imagine more tender mothers than the French. To them the French fathers leave almost entirely the training of the children, even of the boys, and of course much more so of the girls.

Quite contrary to the English principles of training children, the French child never is left alone. The mother packs it, so to say, in wadding, pampers it, watches over it ceaselessly, and interrupts the course of

her life and her household duties for its tyranny, which is the more unrestricted as the proverbial two-children system of the French has been reduced more and more to a one-child system. The venerable Guizot, who pointed French mothers to the English for an example, and admonished them, "Often leave your children alone," was the first to show some understanding of the situation.

It is plain to be seen that in a girl thus raised in intellectual swaddling clothes, if I may so express it, who is kept constantly under guard by tenderly spying eyes that do not allow her to take one step alone in the street, that anxiously superintend her reading and her conversation with men—in a girl thus hermetically sealed against realities there hardly can develop a spirit of the age, or a feeling of responsibility and

duty, or a comprehension of women's special problems, or a head for practical life and strength of judgment.

She never has learned to act independently; what wonder that later she willingly permits herself to be married off by her parents and guardians, just for the sake of coming at last into the comparative freedom of the matron, and of escaping from her slavery? What wonder is it that, inexperienced and helpless, she is so easily a prey to the numerous Don Juans, and that in the convenience marriage a woman's love for her husband seldom is heard of? The results of the French training of girls hitherto have been such that Alexander Dumas and his followers never have lacked material for their dramas founded on the transgression of the marriage vows.

Within a few years a change in this respect has been effected which is of highest importance to the social life and to the future of France. The Chinese wall with which the race in its vanity sought to shut itself off from the intellectual influence of foreign lands sinks into ruins; Parisian methods of training and education are taken by storm by enterprising young English and American women, who accomplish this task through their example. And the so-called woman's movement becomes much in evidence even in France.

For the rest, it lies in the nature of the case that an individual country keeping in continual intercourse with the rest of the world cannot escape its influence. These facts crop out impressively in a great number of letters I have at hand from young girls who were asked by a certain Parisian review to write statements of their judgment and their wishes in the matter.

One fourteen-year-old girl likes to live "in a land of dreams" and read romances, "especially if they are not juvenile stories"; but a nineteen-year-old girl who writes, "The conditions made me serious at a very early age" may be taken as a representative of the great majority of those of her own age. The economical and social conditions of life have become different, the direction of life is unsteady, the burden of

work in polite circles has rapidly increased, class contrasts have sharpened threateningly, and there are only a few families remaining whose pleasant existence is safe from sudden change and misfortune. One must plunge more actively than ever before into the fierce, common battle for the existence of his fortune. And from this fate even the young girl cannot escape. She therefore matures earlier and sooner feels the necessity of freeing herself from the yoke of supervision and of becoming at least a little independent.

I will cite some characteristics of this change, of course with frequent reference to the above-mentioned letters, for they are an exceedingly rich contribution to the history of French *fin de siècle* customs.

A twenty-year-old daughter of country nobility, who evidently is being molded under private instruction, writes, among other things:

There are everywhere well-instructed young women, and those among them who are reared without leaving the parents' roof are just as efficient as those who run up and down the Rue [street] Saint-Jacques [in the Latin Quarter of Paris] with a map under the arm. Supposing even that the former are the less learned, they are and remain women, and that is their compensation.

Does not this aggressive letter sound like a declaration of war? But against whom? This question is answered in the following extract from the same letter:

There are, alas, in our beloved France two currents in the question of women's training: the university current—with its women's college, its model authority, examinations, etc.—and the other current.

And she spitefully continues:

The two approach each other the less because they more and more are drifting apart.

And there she hits the nail on the head. The rivalry between state or city instruction on the one side and private on the other, between the instruction by teachers representing the sisters and those representing the state, between the boarding-school and the day-school, in fact has become more and more sharp during the last ten years, and one has no difficulty in seeing that here political and religious interests of all kinds come into play against each other. For



instance, fear of a return of the empire or kingdom has been detrimental to religious schools for a time, while fear of socialism lately has led to an increase in the militia. In the so-called good old times, but which were not so very long ago, people educated their daughters either under the paternal roof—an expense which to-day only very wealthy families incur—or else at a boarding-school conducted mostly by the sisters, or at a cloister training institution, where of course they grew up ignorant of the ways of the world. Of these kinds of institutions for girls there are any number in France. The most celebrated ones in Paris are the Convent des Oiseaux, the Dames du Sacré-Coeur boarding-school, and the Dames du Saint-Sacrement boarding-school.

Other kinds of institutions have kept up with modern methods, preparing for teachers' examinations and offering preparatory courses or lectures. Among these the half-boarding-school and even the day-school are included. But even yet the rule is the boarding-school, called the *internat*, with its strong religious teaching and cloisterlike education, which of course does not bar out instruction in music and other social accomplishments.

Lately, however, the *internat* has fallen into disrepute in France, and especially in tone-giving Paris. This may be charged up not only to the overcrowding of the better boarding-schools with foreigners, whose influence French mothers, with reason or lack of reason, fear, but chiefly to the sweeping changes in the conditions of modern life that announce themselves on every side. The instruction imparted at the *internat*, even under a competent faculty, appears too one-sided; people begin to comprehend that the social intercourse in the parental house, the constant touch with actual life, both condemned behind cloister walls, are the necessary complements of a theoretical education. The same awakening is evident in the following letter of a nineteen-year-old girl:

I certainly am not an ardent champion of reform, for I lack the experience that would require; but still I feel that it is a crime to shut off the horizon

from us and then to hurl us into a whole sea of perplexities.

An eighteen-year-old girl says:

I wished a comparative study between the different habits of life of young girls in France and in other countries, especially England, America, and Germany, so that I might learn why the young girls of these nations lead a free and independent life compared with us, and that I might find the secret of their cultured intellects.

To-day most young girls remain in the bosom of their families, where, under the guidance of their guardians, usually the self-sacrificing, indulgent mothers, they attempt the professional or non-professional courses, which everywhere, and usually free to pupils, are conducted at the expense of the parish or the state.

Girls' colleges, too, are taking a strong flight into popularity. In Paris there are already five, in which, moreover, only women teachers are employed, greatly in contrast to corresponding German institutions. Day-school is usual, but favor is shown also to a compromise between the day-school and the boarding-school, called the half-boarding-school, where the pupils stay for their principal meals, going home at night.

In this collection of letters from young girls there are abundant other indications of a complete revolution in customs.

One girl demands "broadening of their ideas, annihilation of their prejudices." Others bewail the "multitude of their titles and toilets," which give no mental inspiration. A third mocks at the foolishness of "girls' stories" and longs to try the works of Ibsen, Tolstoi, Zola, etc. A fourth, and nearly all the rest agree with her, speaks contemptuously of the past and its patriarchal customs. A fifth wishes to exert a strong influence on her parents to educate her in things that would not be possible in a boarding-school; she goes on to speak against the boarding-school. And I have passed over the many young women who wish to know about current politics, because, they say, it is too tiresome always to hear one's father and brother talking of something one knows nothing about.

## HOME-MADE SUMMER RESORTS.

BY FELIX OSWALD, M. D.

**A**BOUT forty-five years ago the French engineer Benoit made an invention that ought to interest housekeepers almost as much as the invention of sewing-machines and cooking-stoves taken together. By filling a large cellar vault with blocks of ice and pumping the cool air into several hundred different offices, workshops, and magazines he reduced the temperature of the Toulon arsenal thirty degrees, and thus proved that our dwelling-houses could be cooled in midsummer as effectively as we now warm them in winter.

Ice air, artificially produced and distributed, is destined to reduce the misery of our dog-day climate to a minimum. The cities of the future will have cold-air factories with force-pumps, pipes, and self-registering thermometers, and without a parlor refrigerator no civilized household will be considered complete; but it is not advisable to wait for municipal assistance in reforms of that sort. Popular prejudices—the dread of draughts and colds and what not—may hamper the introduction of refrigerating machines as superstition hampered the introduction of artificial light. The chief god of the Greeks was supposed to have exhausted his ingenuity for the torture of the Titan who taught men the art of turning winter into summer, and “Lucifer,” the “Light-bringer,” remained for centuries a synonym of the arch fiend.

Still, the practical proofs of that arsenal experiment have clearly established not only the possibility of cooling buildings on the warmest days of the year, but also the certainty that the invention of the process is a blessing from a sanitary point of view.

At first, of course, the bugbear howlers prevailed. The arsenal operatives threatened to strike if they and their children were to be exposed to the risk of working all day in a draught of ice air. There was talk of mob violence and damage suits.

But the number of converts included a dozen of the leading managers, and the superintendent had the good sense not to force matters. He ordered the cooling of a few offices and storage rooms and allowed the hearsay croakers to swelter to their hearts' content. They were not even forced to enter the cool warehouse, and could deputy that peril to unprejudiced fellow workmen. But those who did venture to cross the threshold of the supposed abode of catarrhs got into the habit of lingering. On days when the mercury in the workshop trembled at the fever-heat mark the conservatives experienced a change of heart. They possibly thought it wicked to jeopardize the lives of their fellow men and decided to incur personal risks. The cool warehouse became a loafing place, and finally a refuge of those who felt the physical impossibility of bearing the swelter ordeal much longer. An extra cool assembly hall was crowded during the noonday siesta and hundreds found a pretext to visit it on the sly. They were sent back to work or fined for loitering, till a chance to visit the cool-air hall came to be considered a privilege.

And only then the director ventured upon a measure which a few weeks before would have been pretty sure to defeat its purpose. The proposition to cool the main workshops was put to the vote and carried, if not unanimously, at least by acclamations that scared the croakers into discreet silence. Every malcontent was allowed to apply for transfer to one of the few remaining swelter shops, and a few did apply, but with an unexpected result: their new comrades consulted and appointed a committee to call upon the director and protest against the idea of several hundred rationalists having to be broiled for the benefit of half a dozen imbeciles.

The propaganda of reform had gone far

enough, and the director hesitated no longer to order the cooling of every office, workshop, and storeroom in the building, and let dissenters accept a luxury free of cost or quit the service of the government. At the same time the medical supervisor published a memorandum proving by certified statistics that since the introduction of the refrigerating apparatus summer complaints had decreased sixty-five per cent, and that hundreds of outsiders had applied for permission to visit the assembly hall as a special favor, and had thus found relief from disorders which drugs had failed to cure.

The contrast between the air of the Toulon ice vault and the atmosphere on a warm summer afternoon amounts to a difference of nearly fifty degrees, and if strong currents of such ice air not only failed to cause, but almost never failed to cure, sanitary troubles we may be very sure that ordinary cool draughts can be risked without hesitation. Private enterprise can turn almost any isolated building into a summer resort far surpassing the thermal attractions of the conventional warm-weather rendezvous. Ice is cheap nowadays, but even without a close imitation of the Benoit process special rooms can be cooled on the two principles that air in motion produces effects analogous to a reduction of temperature, and that thermal contrasts tend to equalize their difference by more or less lively air-currents. In a grove, rising like an oasis from the midst of sun-blistered fields, there is always a perceptible breeze, no matter how suffocatingly stagnant the noonday heat may brood all around. For similar reasons adjoining rooms, one sunny, the other shaded, will create a draught as soon as doors and windows are opened in the line of the faintest outdoor air-current.

And such currents can be concentrated by means of a wind-sail. "A pair of stout shoes," says Henry Thoreau, "do their owner as much good as if the whole surface of this planet were covered with leather for his special benefit," and a dollar's worth of old canvas stitched together in the form of a funnel-shaped bag will serve to keep its

constructor as comfortably cool as if the atmosphere of a whole coast region had been chilled by a drifting mountain range of icebergs. It will concentrate the beneficent effect of a light breeze as a lens of glass concentrates the warming rays of the sun. Measured by the test of a thermometer, the air may be nearly, if not quite, as warm as the broiling atmosphere all around, but it will feel cooler—much cooler, and often answer the purpose of the refrigeration-craving organism better than a glass of cold lemonade.

Dio Lewis' crusade against shade-trees can be justified only from one point of view: they afford shelter to that pest of our American cities, the English sparrows, which really often make one long for a chance of peace in the midst of a treeless table-land; but in the summer-tortured plains of our Atlantic slope the matter can be compromised by conniving at the occasional visits of a boy with a Flobert rifle.

Sparrowless shade-trees in the next neighborhood of a house, but especially on the south side, are worth their weight in patent medicines. A modest frame building at the edge of a maple grove has made summer a festival to a family of my acquaintance, who had to leave their luxurious city residence every July, at a yearly expense of two hundred dollars, or risk spending a larger amount for headache pills and insomnia remedies.

"But would you exclude sunlight, one of nature's best remedies for germ-diseases?" asked our friend Dio. Why not, at a time of year when there is a glaringly evident surplus of its influence? The almost perpetual shade of primeval forests was the original home of our species, and a limited and localized amount of that luxury can hardly be considered an enemy to human health. In a country like Egypt even sun-obstructing stone walls are preferable to the absolute lack of shade, and in our climate of torrid summers we need not object to natural sunshades that open their screen at the very time of the year when sunlight becomes an unqualified blessing.

## CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.

### THE DINGLEY TARIFF BILL A LAW.



CONGRESSMAN NELSON DINGLEY.  
Father of the New Tariff Bill.

art, and literature, etc., were restored to the dutiable list and duties were increased on first and second-class wools; the stamp tax was omitted. The amended bill, on July 19, was sent to the Senate. It was passed by that body on July 24, there being 40 votes for and 30 against it. At 4:06 p. m. it received the president's signature. By virtue of its becoming active on the day it was made law it went into effect at 12:01 a. m. of July 24. The new bill differs from its predecessors chiefly in its higher rates and its frequent changes from *ad valorem* to specific duties.

(*Rep.*) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

The truth is that practical men of all parties had come to desire the restoration of the protective policy as the only sure and speedy mode of lifting the country out of the prostration to which it had been condemned for more than four years by Clevelandism and free trade.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

For the first time in the history of American tariff legislation there is now unanimity among the business men of the Union in rejoicing over the passage of a tariff bill.

(*Ind.*) *The Chicago Record.* (Ill.)

It is not improbable that the Dingley Bill, if it may be so called after its thorough revision, will go down in history as worse than the McKinley law. There can be no justification at this day for the excessively high rates of duty which it imposes. It is a continuation of war taxes in time of peace for the benefit, not of the government, but of private individuals.

(*Rep.*) *The Inter Ocean.* (Chicago, Ill.)

The large imports of the past few months, estimated by experts as equivalent to a year's supply, must be disposed of before a full renewal of com-

THE first undertaking of the present administration, that of increasing our revenue, culminated July 24 in the enactment into law of the Dingley Tariff Bill. The bill was introduced into the House on the first day of the special session of Congress, March 15. It passed this body without radical changes, excepting the addition of the "retroactive amendment," on March 31 by a vote of 205 to 121, and on April 1 went to the Finance Committee of the Senate. Here it was practically remodeled. The classification was changed, a new sugar schedule was substituted for that of the House, rates on wool were greatly reduced, and the "retroactive amendment" and reciprocity measure were stricken out; the amendments, 874 in all, tended to restore the House rates. In this form the bill passed the Senate on July 7 by a vote of 38 to 28, seven of the senators present not voting, and was referred to the joint committee of the House and Senate. The chief dispute in the Conference Committee was on the sugar schedule. In this the House conferees won, making a slight increase on both raw and refined sugar. Burlaps, jute, cotton bagging, cotton ties, Chinese matting, works of science,

mercial activity is observable. But the dawn of prosperity already is visible, and its brightness will continue to increase.

(*Dem.*) *The Chattanooga Times.* (Tenn.)

The bill will be a big obstruction to business revival out of the way.

(*Ind.*) *The Ledger.* (Tacoma, Wash.)

Now that the all-important matter is decided by so strong a vote, everybody will feel reassured, and the long looked for revival of business will doubtless begin.

(*Rep.*) *The Tribune.* (Minneapolis, Minn.)

We believe that the change will be found to be most beneficial. The bill as passed is not an ideal measure of protection. It is the product of many compromises. But it is a measure of protection, with regard to the revenue needs of the government, and its effects will prove to be salutary.

(*Dem.*) *The Commercial Appeal.* (Memphis, Tenn.)

The Dingley Bill is now the law of the land; and it has been designed so that nearly every necessary of life will be dearer to the people. To meet the dreadful deficit the people will be taxed millions of dollars for the benefit of the trusts and the millionaires.

(Ind.) *The Evening Post.* (New York, N. Y.)

The bill contains nearly every element of unpopularity, and can be defended on no considerations of revenue. It is intended to diminish imports and to increase the profits of great combinations of capitalists.

(Rep.) *The Kansas Capital.* (Topeka.)

The Dingley Bill has been satisfactory to the party east and west from the day it passed the House, by the testimony of representative papers in both sections, and the final agreement substantially on the terms of the Dingley schedules on all important differences is gratifying news.

(Dem.) *The Times.* (Hartford, Conn.)

Only the general features of such a measure as this new tariff can be generally understood at the outset. Every day that it shall be in effect will reveal some new injustice that has been perpetrated in its passage. The agitation for tariff revision, so unfavorable to the business of the country, is increased instead of being ended by such a measure.

(Ind.) *Public Ledger.* (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Figures compiled by the New York *World* show that in little more than three months, during which time the bill has been under consideration, the total share value of the "industrial" stocks on the New York Exchange has increased \$209,567,884; that of

standard railroad stocks, \$267,257,019; that of active railroad bonds, \$64,870,000, and the probable value of this year's corn and wheat crops, \$107,893,000. Here is increased prosperity to the amount of nearly \$650,000,000 in three months, and the only plausible explanation for it is the renewed confidence inspired by anticipation of the new tariff.

(Rep.) *Denver Republican.* (Col.)

The best result that can be hoped from it is the test it will afford of the efficacy of a protective tariff to restore prosperity. If it fails to do that, as we have no doubt it will, the country will turn to some other remedy, and the leading issue, unexposed by other considerations, will unquestionably be the free coinage movement.

(Dem.) *The Chicago Evening Post.* (Ill.)

A certain, definite basis for estimates and calculations is provided, and the fact that the measure is not ideal and absolutely self-consistent has long since been discounted. There is cause for rejoicing and congratulation.

(Rep.) *Republican Standard.* (Bridgeport, Conn.)

Even if it is as bad as the most unscrupulous howler among the whole free trade crowd declares, it cannot help being better than the "perfidy and dishonor" bill [Wilson Bill], nor can it help giving relief to industry. Certainty means business.

## THE KLONDIKE GOLD-FIELDS.



MAP OF THE KLONDIKE GOLD REGION.

THE new gold-fields on the Klondike River in the Yukon region of the Northwest Territory, Canada, promise to eclipse South Africa in the production of gold. There the richest gold-finds ever known to the world were made last August and September. The gold is found in placers along the streams, and while the nuggets are large, one being worth \$257, another \$231, the value of the region lies in the general distribution of its wealth. Not one of the two hundred claims staked out on the Bonanza and Eldorado Creeks proved to be a blank, and numerous other streams in the vicinity promise to be equally productive. By December news of the gold strike had traveled as far as Circle City, about three hundred miles distant from the mines, and a general exodus from the city to the new El Dorado resulted. It was the middle of July before the excitement spread to the United States.

Then miners returned home with large fortunes in gold-dust. For instance, on July '17 the steamship *Portland* arrived in Port Townsend, Wash., with sixty-eight miners on board, of whom two or three brought with them more than \$100,000 each and the rest averaged \$7,000 apiece. A mad rush for the mines was immediately begun at San Francisco, Seattle, and vicinity, regardless of the remoteness of the fields and the rigor of their climate.



*New York Tribune. (N. Y.)*

One of the chief complaints against the Chinese has been that they come to this country merely to get what they can out of it, and then go back home with the proceeds. That is exactly what American miners are doing in the Klondike region. They are entering British territory, getting all they can out of it, and then coming back to the United States with their wealth. That the Canadian government should freely permit this is a manifestation of a kindly spirit toward this country which should facilitate the adjustment of all relations between the two nations upon a friendly and mutually advantageous basis.

*The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)*

The gold is there in greater abundance than it has ever been found by man, and that fact will soon draw into the territory the comforts and facilities of civilization which are as yet impossible.

*Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

It would seem that the new gold discoveries should make that metal cheaper and thus raise the price of silver, but, instead of that, silver is declining, until now it is worth only about forty-six cents on the dollar. The explanation seems to be that, with gold becoming so plentiful, there is no demand for silver, and its price is going down in obedience to the inexorable law of supply and demand, a law which no amount of bimetallic agreements can overcome or avoid.

*The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)*

We have personally talked with some of these miners and know how they regard the situation. It is a question of transportation and supplies. The work of placer mining is fatiguing; it is work in water, and none but the most robust will long endure it. In winter there is danger from pneumonia; in summer, from malaria and mosquitoes, and the latter are a nuisance almost intolerable.

*Baltimore Sun. (Md.)*

With such descriptions to lure them on and with the corroborative testimony of the *Portland's* cargo, there is no wonder that a rush of twenty or thirty thousand men toward the new territory in the next month or two is anticipated. In that event, starvation in the midst of gold will, it is believed, be the fate of thousands, as it will be absolutely impossible to feed half the number indicated with the supplies that are now on the way or which can be gotten through before the cold season begins.

*The Republican Standard. (Bridgeport, Conn.)*

We hear of all the successes, but it should be remembered that before this last "flurry" there were sad stories of trial, danger, famine, and failure from some portions of the Alaskan gold-fields.

*Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)*

So large an addition to the supply of gold cannot

fail to have an effect on the business of this country—and perhaps on its politics also.

*Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)*

According to the opinion of experts, there is but one chance for silver to obtain any benefit from the promised gold discoveries. In the rush to Alaska silver may be neglected and its product diminished. Shorten the supply of silver and the value will increase. But this is unlikely. The great smelting companies, which virtually control the production of silver, are doing a profitable business, and they are not likely to drop it for any Alaska excitement.

*The Chicago Record. (Ill.)*

The prospectors who migrated in covered wagons across the plains in 1849 had more obstacles to contend with than a traveler would have nowadays in getting to the Klondike or the upper Yukon, but the California gold seeker had a fairly equitable climate for his travels and for his work after he arrived. The man who goes to the mines along the Klondike must bear considerable expense for his journey, he must be ready to face the hardships of unremittent labor, of a rigorous climate, and of limited rations, and occasionally he must confront real perils. After he arrives he must live in a complete isolation from civilization for the greater part of the year.

*Baltimore Journal of Commerce. (Md.)*

The production of silver during the last two decades has constantly increased when compared with the production of gold, but the new discovery may help to even matters up and play an important part in the solution of the problems which have been disturbing elements for some time.

*The Seattle Post-Intelligencer. (Wash.)*

Whether or not the stories are exaggerated, there can be no doubt of the wonderful richness of the country.

*The Ledger. (Tacoma, Wash.)*

The prospect of profit in the business is seemingly tempting enough to provide facilities as rapidly as they will be needed. It is of quite as much interest to Portland, Seattle, and Tacoma as to the miners or mine seekers to have them provided.

*Providence Journal. (R. I.)*

Such a favorable area for placer mining has not been uncovered, apparently, since 1852, when Australia was the goal of so many thousand men's hopes. New reports come every day of other favorable localities in the same latitude, many of these on American soil.

*The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)*

A liberal policy toward British citizens who desire to traverse Alaskan soil in order to reach their own gold-fields ought to be authorized by Congress so long as Canada permits our people to take gold from the Klondike.

## SECRETARY SHERMAN IN THE SEAL CONTROVERSY.



HON. JOHN SHERMAN.  
United States Secretary of State.

mination of the fur-seals, and brought to naught the patient labors and well-meant conclusions of the Tribunal of Arbitration. Upon Great Britain must therefore rest, in the public conscience of mankind, the responsibility of the embarrassment in the relations of the two nations which must result from such conduct. We have felt assured that, as it has been demonstrated that the practice of pelagic sealing, if continued, will not only bring itself to an end, but will work the destruction of a great interest of a friendly nation, Her Majesty's government would desist from an act so suicidal and so unneighborly, and which certainly could not command the approval of its own people." On July 30 it was announced by the British Foreign Office at London that Great Britain accepts our government's proposition for a conference, at Washington, D. C., early in October, of the experts representing Great Britain and the United States in the sealing investigation.

(*Rep.*) *Baltimore American.* (Md.)

If a firm and truthful statement of facts is impolite, this letter was impolite, but not otherwise. Lord Salisbury appears to be learning that diplomacy on this side of the ocean does not consist in concealing matters, but in stating them with convincing force.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

On the whole, Mr. Sherman's diplomatic despatches, which so shocked, by their supposed rudeness, sundry British newspapers and their allies and echoes on this side of the water, seem to have vindicated themselves thoroughly. They left no doubt of their meaning or of American sentiment as to the facts they set forth.

(*Dem.*) *Cincinnati Enquirer.* (Ohio.)

The seal controversy is not a very momentous one, but it serves as an object-lesson to show that the British government is false and unscrupulous in its dealings with us when it chooses to be so.

(*Ind.*) *The Evening Post.* (New York, N. Y.)

Mr. Sherman's alleged despatch conveys to the mind of the uninstructed reader the idea that Great Britain has violated her duty in this behalf—not what we consider to be her duty, but a duty expressed and defined in the award—which is false.

ELOQUENCE accompanied by action has finally been substituted by England for the studied indifference with which she has been wont to meet the efforts of the United States government in behalf of the fur-seals. This change followed England's receipt of Secretary Sherman's instructions sent to the United States' representative at St. James' court, Ambassador Hay, in answer to Lord Salisbury's recent note refusing to consider either of this government's proposals concerning the fur-seals, *i. e.*, for a temporary arrangement to suspend all seal killing during the present season and for a joint conference of the powers interested, with a view to adopting regulations necessary to preserve the fur-seal in the North Pacific waters. Secretary Sherman's letter of instructions was published on July 13. It reviews England's policy of delay, her repeated refusals to cooperate with this government to save the seals from extermination, and the arduous efforts of the United States to secure action for the protection of the seals in accordance with the award of the Paris tribunal. The letter says: "A course so persistently followed for the last three years has practically accomplished the commercial extermination of the fur-seals, and brought to naught the patient labors and well-meant conclusions of the Tribunal of Arbitration. Upon Great Britain must therefore rest, in the public conscience of mankind, the responsibility of the embarrassment in the relations of the two nations which must result from such conduct. We have felt assured that, as it has been demonstrated that the practice of pelagic sealing, if continued, will not only bring itself to an end, but will work the destruction of a great interest of a friendly nation, Her Majesty's government would desist from an act so suicidal and so unneighborly, and which certainly could not command the approval of its own people." On July 30 it was announced by the British Foreign Office at London that Great Britain accepts our government's proposition for a conference, at Washington, D. C., early in October, of the experts representing Great Britain and the United States in the sealing investigation.

(*Rep.*) *The Tribune.* (Minneapolis, Minn.)

The United States does not desire and has never demanded any regulations that were unnecessarily onerous. It has simply asked such as were just. It is hardly surprising, under the circumstances, that Secretary Sherman's last note on the subject was emphatic and perhaps rather brusque.

(*Ind.*) *Public Ledger.* (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The language of the letter of instructions is to be regretted, although the contentions of the secretary are sound.

(*Dem.*) *Times-Union.* (Jacksonville, Fla.)

Though Mr. Sherman's letter will not lead to war. Americans may regret the secretary's violation of the international code of good manners. But they will feel that in the quarrel about seals Mr. Sherman is right and Lord Salisbury wrong.

(*Rep.*) *Ohio State Journal.* (Columbus.)

This change of front may have been caused by Mr. Foster's securing the cooperation of the Russian czar for the protection of the seal life in the Behring Sea, and the fear that perhaps it would make, but little difference what England did in the matter. In any event the strong, courageous course of Secretary Sherman will be commended by the American people.

## COMMENT OF THE LONDON PRESS.

*Daily Graphic.*

Our experience of the incurably bad manners of American diplomacy renders it unnecessary to regard Secretary Sherman's explosion seriously. It would be unwise to embitter the negotiations by answering Secretary Sherman according to his indiscretions.

*Daily News.*

The ugly despatch from Secretary Sherman which has got into print is sure to revive for the moment the unpleasant memory of 1895, when England and the United States found themselves almost on the brink of war, but it will be only momentarily.

*Pall Mall Gazette.*

Mr. Sherman's tone is not what it might be, but the nastiest feature of the affair is the publication of the despatch at all.

*The Globe.*

Englishmen will be glad to see that Lord Salisbury has, so far as a patrol of the seal fisheries is concerned, treated the message as though it had never been sent. If he were to go a step farther, and to direct Sir Julian Pauncefote to intimate to Mr. Mc-

Kinley that Her Majesty's government declines to receive despatches couched in such language, and could only reply to the next by handing Colonel Hay his passports, the action would be indorsed by the complete approval of the nation.

*St. James' Gazette.*

The United States makes a quite unwarrantable demand. We ignore it. Then the American State Department sends a menacing and insulting despatch. We promptly yield. It is the Venezuelan business and the Cleveland message once again. And once again it will confirm the American political mind in the conviction that John Bull always knuckles down when bullied and threatened. Our statesmen are preparing future disasters for both countries by encouraging this dangerous delusion.

*The Standard.*

The appearance of Secretary Sherman's despatch has undoubtedly damaged the position of the State Department. It is preposterous that we should be accused of bad faith by men who have notoriously refused to comply with an impartial award simply because it was given against them.

## THE MINERS' STRIKE.

ABOUT 150,000 men are now out on the strike of bituminous coal-miners in the states of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and West Virginia, and with their families they aggregate 1,000,000 souls. The strikers claim that their wages have been reduced below the living point. According to the report of Mr. M. D. Ratchford, president of the United Mine Workers, "in the great Hocking Valley district of Ohio the average wages in one of the largest mines during a period of eight months, from October 1, 1896, to June 1, 1897, was \$60 per man, or \$7.50 per man per month, gross earnings; from this amount the cost of mine supplies are deducted, leaving the remainder with which to pay house rent, coal, etc., and support his family." As the fall in wages has been nearly uniform in all the mining states, the above instance is said to illustrate the condition of most of the miners. The strike began on July 4, its center being in the Pittsburg, Pa., districts. Early in its course, upon an appeal for protection by the coal and railroad companies affected, the federal court instructed the United States marshal and his deputies to protect the property of these companies. Still comparatively little rioting has taken place, the method of the strikers being to besiege the operating mines and by peaceful persuasion win away the working miners. The strike is indorsed by the American Federation of Labor and other labor organizations. On July 28 representatives of eighty-nine coal companies in conference at Pittsburg adopted a uniformity agreement. The agreement requires the signatures of ninety-five per cent of the operators on or before January 1, 1898, before becoming active. On July 29, in an address at a huge mass-meeting near the Turtle Creek mines, Mr. E. V. Debs exhorted the strikers to continue sober and orderly if they hoped to succeed. On August 2, Patrick Dolan, a district-president of the miners, was arrested near Turtle Creek "for inciting to riot and unlawful assembly." He gave bail and rejoined the strikers.

*(Dem.) The Sentinel. (Indianapolis, Ind.)*

Of what account is the boasted freedom of a republic which produces in one century of its existence vast armies of semi-starving laborers? To the thousands of miners earning less than \$3 a week the declaration of independence can be nothing if not a mockery.

*(Rep.) The Indianapolis Journal. (Ind.)*

The strike is greatly to be regretted, but the J—Sept.

necessity for it is equally so, and all must unite in hoping that it may result in the establishment of better conditions and better wages for the miners.

*(Ind.) Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

The competition is so great that the regions which produce inferior coal, or where the incidental cost of mining and shipment is heavy, cannot keep at work except on a low wage-scale. This is hard upon the miners and their families, and explains, if

it does not justify, their disposition to strike, and yet the strike cannot benefit them because conditions beyond the control of operators fix the scale of wages to be paid.

(*Rep.*) *The Times.* (*Pittsburg, Pa.*)

If the miners' officials push the whole business to an arbitration conference they will do the best job that has been done for the miner in a long time.

(*Dem.*) *The Philadelphia Record.* (*Pa.*)

If both parties would agree in advance to submit to the award of arbitrators, and also agree upon the selection of arbitrators, solution would be easy.

(*Ind.*) *The Chicago Record.* (*Ill.*)

If the operators proved obstinate the duration of the strike and the inconvenience and possible distress suffered by the rest of the country would be limited only by the ability of the miners to hold out. But the operators should be loath to allow the strike to continue indefinitely merely to maintain a wage-scale which a majority of the public and of the operators themselves has already condemned as unjust. For one thing the public indignation which must come from a coal famine would fall with in-

creasing vehemence upon those who refuse to concede to a reasonable arbitration.

(*Ind.*) *The Evening Post.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

We are very much afraid that the governors of the coal-producing states have participated in a conspiracy to encourage acts in restraint of trade. They have been proposing arbitration with a view to establishing agreements of an unlawful character between the miners and their employers.

(*Rep.*) *The Inter Ocean.* (*Chicago, Ill.*)

If prosperity is coming the men who furnish the brawn and muscle are entitled to a fair share of it. This explains the present strike, but it does not settle the labor question. Other issues are involved.

(*Ind.*) *The Chicago Times-Herald.* (*Ill.*)

The people look to the mine owners to end a situation that threatens the prosperity and peace of a great section of the country. They cannot stick to the feudal principle that a man may do as he will with his own. As men of wealth, great employers of labor, and, in a sense, representatives of good government, they are under a responsibility that public opinion will not permit them to shirk.

## THE REVOLT IN INDIA.

THE recent riots in India have assumed the proportions of a rebellion. About the first of July a riot took place in Bombay with a loss of fifteen hundred lives. According to the native press, the cause was indignation against England for celebrating her triumphs while the conquered nations were oppressed by famine and plague. The vigorous measures enforced to restrict the plague caused further discontent and aroused the religious prejudices of both Hindoos and Mohammedans. The disaffection spread throughout all India. The most serious outbreak occurred in northwestern India, where forty thousand natives were led by a fanatical priest, Mad Mollah, in an attack on Fort Malakand in the Chitral. Beginning July 27, the fighting lasted several days. The English fort was barely saved by reinforcements that hurried thither on a forced march from Nowshera. In advices of July 30 Mad Mollah was reported as wounded. Lesser disturbances took place in various parts of the empire.

*Public Ledger.* (*Philadelphia, Pa.*)

An uprising in India would be deplorable, not because of its effect upon Great Britain, but because it would bring upon the empire the horrors of civil war and could yield no compensating good result. India's independence (which is unattainable) would be the greatest misfortune that could come upon her, for the nation is overrun with petty princes out of a job, who would eat the life out of the people in the political readjustment made necessary by independence.

*The Evening Star.* (*Washington, D. C.*)

The present danger to the English force lies in the remoteness of the scene of the uprising from the bases of supplies and reserves.

*Denver Republican.* (*Col.*)

The victory which Turkey gained over Greece undoubtedly helped to fire the Moslem heart, and Great Britain will be fortunate if she is not involved in serious complications in her Asiatic possessions.

There is no hope for India in a revolt against British dominion as long as England is not involved in a conflict with any other power. There would be hope in such a revolt if Russia and England were involved in war, for it would then be an invitation to the Russians to march across Afghanistan to northern India and so overrun the whole peninsula, if possible. That would be England's fear in the event of a war with Russia. But it would not follow that the Indians would better their condition by substituting the rule of Russia for that of Great Britain.

*Philadelphia Inquirer.* (*Pa.*)

There will never be another Sepoy mutiny, although there may be wide-spread disorder. The trouble at Chitral with the fanatics who are up in arms is really graver than that in Bombay.

*New York Tribune.* (*N. Y.*)

The facts are, of course, that plague and famine are in spite of, not because of, British rule; that

the present visitations are vastly less terrible than those of old, because of the beneficence of British rule, and that the British government has wrought little short of miracles in quelling the plague and in relieving and warding against recurrence of the famine.

*The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)*

Hitherto the British government has relied on

the separation between the Hindoos and Mussulmans to maintain its supremacy in India. Of late years they have been coming closer together as education spread, and recent events appear to have helped toward cementing their relations. A united India is what the British government has always feared, and by its present action it would seem to be doing its best to make it.

### THE PRESIDENT'S CURRENCY MESSAGE.

In the same hour that the Senate passed the tariff bill, July 24, President McKinley sent to Congress a special currency message. In it he states the need of immediate action to secure a better basis for our currency and banking system, and reaffirms the opinions on the currency question expressed in his inaugural address. "The soundness of our currency," he says, "is nowhere questioned. No loss can occur to its holders. It is the system which should be simplified and strengthened, keeping our money just as good as it is now with less expense to the government and the people." He refers to the convention of business men at Indianapolis, Ind., in January last and to their resolutions recommending to Congress the appointment of a monetary commission. "This subject," he adds, "should receive the attention of Congress at its special session. It ought not to be postponed until the regular session. I therefore urgently recommend that a special commission be created, non-partisan in its character, to be composed of well-informed citizens of different parties, who will command the confidence of Congress and the country because of their special fitness for the work, whose duty it shall be to make recommendations of whatever changes in our present banking and currency laws may be found necessary and expedient, and to report their conclusions on or before the first day of November next, in order that the same may be transmitted by me to Congress for its consideration at its first regular session."

In pursuance of the president's message the House passed the Stone Bill, on June 24, by a vote of 124 to 99, six members present not voting. This bill provides for the appointment by the president of a monetary commission of eleven members, who shall meet at Washington, D. C., at the call of the president and shall make out their report ready for the president to lay before Congress not later than November 15, 1897. The bill calls for an appropriation of \$100,000 for the expenses of the commission. From the House the bill went to the Senate. There, together with the special currency message, it was referred to the Committee on Finance to await further action until the next session of Congress.

*(Rep.) The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)*

Whether it is possible for the nations to agree upon a coinage ratio or not, the serious discussion of the subject will be calculated to throw considerable light upon the question, and will clear away many of the sophistries that have taken root through the mouthings of cranks and agitators.

*(Dem.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)*

There is no occasion for a currency commission. There is no excuse for its appointment, and Congress was wise in adjourning without having provided for it.

*(Ind.) Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

It is the duty of the Republican party to bring its energies to the solution of this question, as it was mainly on the issue of sound money that it received its new lease of power from the hands of the people.

*(Dem.) The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)*

Practically nothing was done by Congress on the subject; and it was never intended or expected that it would do anything in regard to it at this extraordinary session. This was clearly indicated by sending in the message only a few hours before final adjournment.

*(Rep.) The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)*

Our present demand is for prosperity and it will not come through tinkering with the currency. The business men want to be let alone for a time and we are sure that they will find our present currency sufficient.

*(Ind. and Anti-Mor.) The Tribune. (Salt Lake City, Utah.)*

The present movement has every sign of sincerity. It is undertaken in the first months of an administration that has at its head a man who comprehends fully the importance of the subject, and who thoroughly realizes that something must be done.

*(Com'l and Mfg.) Boston Commercial Bulletin. (Mass.)*

Let us hear no further carping about our currency. Improved the system may be, but it is all right now and will stay right.

*(Rep.) Denver Republican. (Col.)*

We do not believe that the genuine bimetalists of this country will be misled in the slightest degree by the promise of another international debating society to deal with this subject. They know that the only effective way to secure the



restoration of silver to its old place and value as a money metal is through national legislation, and the proper course for them to pursue is to perfect their organization to fight the issue at the polls in the congressional election of 1898 and the presidential election of 1900.

(Ind.) *The Chicago Record.* (Ill.)

Mr. McKinley's message asking that Congress appoint a commission to break ground for the work of

the next session is urgent but colorless. He merely repeats the truth that there is a pressing necessity for monetary reform, expressing no preferences or convictions of his own.

(Rep.) *The Mail and Express.* (New York, N. Y.)

From whatever standpoint it is viewed, the failure of the Senate to act upon President McKinley's message proposing a currency commission can be regarded only with regret and disappointment.

### CANOVAS DEL CASTILLO, SPANISH PREMIER.



CANOVAS DEL CASTILLO, SPANISH PREMIER.

AN assassin's bullets ended the life of Spain's premier, Senor del Castillo, on August 8, at Santa Agueda, Spain. The murderer is an Italian calling himself Rinaldi, but thought to be the anarchist Michel Angino Golli; he was immediately arrested. The premier lived only two hours after the attack, although he received instant attention from his wife and several physicians. No political uprisings followed the crime, and the Liberals promptly offered their services to the government. Don Antonio Canovas del Castillo was born in Malaga, Spain, on February 8, 1828, of humble parentage. He won distinction in jurisprudence and philosophy in the University of Madrid and then entered the field of journalism. In 1852 he was elected deputy from his native town to the Cortes and immediately was placed in the ministry of the interior. He became *chargé d'affaires* at Rome in 1856, under secretary of the interior in 1861, a responsible minister of the department in the Mon cabinet in 1864, and minister of finance under O'Donnell in 1865; in the last office he secured Parliament's favorable action on his bill for the abolition of slavery. Being a monarchical Liberal he was exiled by the revolution of 1868. His statesmanship overthrew the feeble republic and restored Alphonso XII. to the throne in 1874. He served as premier in 1874-79 and 1879-81. He then became leader of the intermediate party called the Conservative Liberals. He again was premier during 1884-85, 1890-92, and from 1895 to his death. In 1887 Senor Canovas married Senorita Joaquin de Osma, who was hostile to the queen regent of Spain and who was said to have great influence over her husband in affairs of state. As an author he dealt mostly with moral and political science; some of his works are, "History of the House of Austria," "History of the Decline of Spain from the Accession of Philip III. to the Death of Charles II.," "El Solitario," and a work on the contemporary Spanish theater. The premiership will be filled temporarily by General Azcarraga, Spanish minister of war.

*The Chicago Record.* (Ill.)

The nationality of the assassin seems to discourage the theory which will naturally be the first to suggest itself to Spanish ministerial leaders—that he was in some way acting in sympathy with the Cuban insurgents. It is not even altogether certain that his death will be a benefit to the Cuban cause, although Spain is likely to look far for a man who combined his political views with his ability. So far as Cuba is concerned, indeed, the chief result accomplished, intentionally or not, by the assassin will be to weaken the Spanish government forces while at the same time evoking a strong wave of sympathy on behalf of the murdered man and all he represented.

*Public Ledger.* (Philadelphia, Pa.)

His death is to be deplored as that of an intelligent statesman who served his country faithfully

and fell a victim to the blind hate of the enemies of society. What effect his death will have upon the future of Spain is problematical. The Carlists have been exhibiting signs of renewed activity and the Republicans are not without force, but the people of Spain are conservative—many of them because of their illiteracy—and though the time is ripe for revolution the man seems to be wanting.

*The Philadelphia Inquirer.* (Pa.)

Castillo was the leader of the Conservative party and during his long service he did much to strengthen the government. A master of diplomacy and a man of high intellectual and literary attainments, he honored the post which he held as much as the post honored him. His following throughout Spain was large and devoted, and it will be at least a mitigation of the calamity in the eyes of Spain that his murderer was a Neapolitan and not a Spaniard.

## JAPAN OPPOSES THE ANNEXATION OF HAWAII.

A SECOND protest from Japan against the annexation of Hawaii by the United States is in the hands of the State Department at Washington, D. C. It bears the date of July 10 and is a reply to Secretary Sherman's note of June 25 sent in answer to Japan's protest of June 19. It still insists on the two chief reasons of Japan's objection to the annexation. They are that the importance to all nations of the Hawaiian Islands as a station will be vastly increased by the construction of the Nicaragua or Panama Canal, and that annexation would abridge the privileges and rights which Japan now enjoys in Hawaii. The remaining reason for objection urged in the first protest, namely, that annexation might delay the settlement by Hawaii of certain "claims and liabilities already existing in favor of Japan under treaty stipulations," is not urged in the second protest. But on July 30 an official notice was published that Japan had accepted Hawaii's offer to submit these claims to arbitration. They are, it appears, demands made by Japan for indemnity because of Hawaii's action to restrict Japanese emigration. Both protests emphatically deny the rumors that Japan has designs on the islands. Japan's minister of foreign affairs, Count Okuna, says Japan will oppose annexation to the utmost.

(Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

So far, indeed, as commercial interests are concerned, Hawaii is already and has long been a part of the United States. It is not to be conceived that this country will be compelled to ask the permission of any other nation before it can set the formal seal upon what is substantially an accomplished fact.

(Dem.) *The Pittsburg Post.* (Pa.)

As yet not a single good reason appealing to the common sense of the American people has been advanced why we should annex these volcanic islands and leper settlements.

(Ind.) *The Washington Post.* (D. C.)

There is now no reason why the Senate should not take up and dispose of the treaty of Hawaiian annexation. It should not be a matter of great deliberation. The subject has been before the country for more than four years, and public sentiment has declared itself in overwhelming fashion on hundreds of occasions.

(Rep.) *Globe-Democrat.* (St. Louis, Mo.)

Japan's talk has suddenly assumed a peaceful sound. Probably this will reflect Japan's permanent mood by the time Congress meets. Every nation ought to understand by this time that annexation is going to come, and the only effect which outside opposition would have would be to hasten it.

(Dem.) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

The quickest and best solution of the whole problem is to annex Hawaii at once.

(Ind.) *Public Ledger.* (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The strongest argument in opposition to annexation is the fact that no sound reason is advanced why the United States should disturb the *status quo*, take upon itself new and strange responsibilities, saddle itself with an Asiatic population which would not assimilate with our American civilization, and add a territory which would probably become a state rife with vexatious problems.

(Rep.) *San Francisco Chronicle.* (Cal.)

Japan has no more right to concern herself about

the Hawaiian Islands than we had to bother ourselves about Formosa when that island was taken possession of by the Japanese.

(Ind.) *The Chicago Record.* (Ill.)

Until this nation gives an absolute assurance that the Japanese interests in Hawaii will be dealt with justly Japan has a right to protest.

(Rep.) *The Kansas City Journal.* (Mo.)

Certainly from a commercial standpoint the Hawaiian Islands are already so closely allied to the United States as to make the matter of annexation little more than a superficial formality so far as annexation could possibly affect other nations.

(Dem.) *The Argus.* (Albany, N. Y.)

There are so many serious objections to the annexation of Hawaii that it is questionable whether the treaty has been negotiated in good faith.

(Ind.) *Times-Herald.* (Chicago, Ill.)

It is safe to venture the prediction that Hawaii will be annexed and that the annexation will be accomplished without in any degree disturbing the relations of Japan with her oldest and closest friend among the western governments.

(Rep.) *The Philadelphia Inquirer.* (Pa.)

In spite of her fervid protest that she means nothing, there is no room to doubt that the acquisition of the Hawaiian Islands has been a part of Japan's recent program.

(Rep.) *The Kennebec Journal.* (Augusta, Me.)

Japan will be dispossessed of no valuable rights she now enjoys, except that of sending her people to overrun those islands. That restriction the welfare of the little territory peopled and developed by American citizens and the civilization we gave to it imperatively demand.

(Ind.) *The Tribune.* (Salt Lake City, Utah.)

Her protest is in itself an insult to the United States. With her subjects scattered over half the states of this Union, she intimates that her coolies in Hawaii would have their rights endangered by annexing Hawaii to this country. The Senate ought to promptly ratify the treaty and shut off debate.

## FRESH QUESTS FOR THE NORTH POLE.

JULY saw two widely differing expeditions started for the north pole. The first was a balloon enterprise undertaken by the aeronaut Andree, of Sweden, and two companions. The balloon was of the finest possible workmanship and was made to carry over two tons' weight of ballast, including provisions for two months. The ascension was made successfully on July 16 from the island of Tromsø, Norway. As predicted by Mr. Andree, the balloon started off in a northeasterly direction. His expectation was to sail directly over the pole and photograph the region in passing. Three days later the second expedition embarked from Boston, Mass., headed by Lieut. Robert E. Peary. This explorer will not attempt to find the pole this season, but will content himself with establishing a settlement in the far north of Greenland that may serve as a base of supplies for his intended journey to the pole in 1898.



PROF. S. A. ANDREE.

*New York Tribune. (N. Y.)*

With a fair breeze, a few hours, a day at most, should have brought them [Andree and his party] to the pole, and a week should have carried them across the polar basin to the American or Greenland coast. But perhaps the wind was not fair. Perhaps it died out altogether. Perhaps it veered around to west or east. No one can tell whether Andree and his companions be living or dead, whether they have succeeded in their daring quest or have failed. But even if they are not heard from for weeks and months to come there will still be no reason to give them up as lost.

*The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)*

This resolute and persistent Arctic explorer [Lieutenant Peary], undaunted by his failures, is now going at the work of polar discovery in a systematic way. If he does not reach the pole next summer he will even try for it in '99. Such resolute courage and determination must succeed sooner or later.

*Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

The attempt of explorer Andree to reach the north pole by balloon will be regarded as a hare-brained exploit by many, but whatever may be the outcome of the expedition Andree will have earned great distinction as an intrepid navigator of the air. It is idle to speculate upon the problematical

quest. The *voyageur* has revived extraordinary interest in the art of aeronautics; whether he will unlock the baffling secret of the pole remains to be seen. The distance to the pole from his point of ascension is considerably less than has been accomplished by balloon under circumstances favorable for a long flight; but no precedent argues anything at all for the success of the Andree expedition.

*The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)*

In all probability he [Professor Andree] will not reach the pole. There are many chances that he will lose his life in the undertaking, adding, as he does, the dangers of aerial navigation to the usual risks. Certainly he will suffer almost untold hardships in the balloon when he reaches the colder latitudes. There is not much chance to fight off cold with exercise in such a vessel. And even if he proves the existence of a northwest passage its practically inaccessible location will render it valueless save as a scientific fact.

*The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)*

The purpose of their voyage may be defeated by the air currents carrying them around the point of ninety degrees north, but not over it. Finally, complete success may not yield any results of importance. Observations must be at a distance, includ-



LIEUT. ROBERT E. PEARY.

ing only the record of a fleeting moment. But if photographs are successfully made they will be unique.

## THE GERMAN LIBERALS WIN.

EMPEROR WILLIAM's latest attempt to restrict political and religious liberty in Germany received a severe blow in the defeat of the "Law of Associations" Bill. This bill is one of the emperor's pet measures, and is claimed by him to be a remedy for the spreading agitation of the Social Democrats. At his demand it was introduced into the Prussian Diet last May. Though all of the bill was contested as being oppressive, the parts most criticized were those giving the police power to dissolve all meetings and associations, and stipulating that any one who shall "insult" any religious denomination shall be punishable by a maximum imprisonment of three years. The term "insult" was not defined in the bill. In the Upper House the measure vesting the police with control of all meetings was stricken out, and numerous other sections were weakened by amendments. The bill was then adopted, only to meet defeat in the Lower House on July 24 by a vote of 209 to 204. The Liberals count this victory peculiarly their own, as there is not one Socialist member in the Lower House.

*The Chicago Record. (Ill.)*

The most significant fact in connection with the bill is the indication it gives of the growing reactionary tendencies of Emperor William, who signalized the beginning of his reign by attempts at placating or guiding the socialistic agitation. His failure in this attempt and his growing absolutism seem to have combined to make him now, in middle age, willing to listen to ultra-reactionaries.

*Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

The whole bill, in fact, could have been so construed as to work the worst species of oppression.

*Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)*

Emperor William's absolutism is steadily sinking Germany in the scale of nations. He may preserve for Germany her military strength while suppressing

freedom of thought and action, but she must resign the primacy of mind.

*The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)*

If the kaiser continues to act as if he was a medieval ruler and the divine right of kings belonged to him, the disturbance will extend beyond the bounds of the cabinet and be shared in by the people of the whole empire.

*Denver Republican. (Col.)*

It was a distinct declaration that the Diet would not tolerate so great a restriction upon the freedom of speech, regardless of whether Socialists or any other political party might be affected. This government will not dissolve the Diet and order an election, for it is feared that that would result in giving the opposition more strength than it has now.

## JEAN INGELOW.



JEAN INGELOW.

THE world-renowned poet and novelist Miss Jean Ingelow died at her home in Kensington, London, England, on July 20. She was born at Boston, Lincolnshire, England, in 1830, and on her mother's side of the house is descended from a long line of Scottish lairds. Her father was a well-to-do banker of superior education and culture. Miss Ingelow's youth passed placidly in the company of her eleven brothers and sisters, in the house where she was born and has always made her home. She was almost entirely unknown until the publication of her first volume of poems in 1863. This book, including "Divided," "The Songs of Seven," "High Tide on the Coast of Lincolnshire," and "The Songs of the Siren" at once established her fame as a poet of high rank. Her productions, both poems and novels, were as popular in America as in England. Some of the most noted of them are: "Studies for Stories from Girls' Lives," "Stories Told to a Child," "Home Thoughts and Home Scenes," "The Suspicious Jackdaw," "The Grandmother's Shoe," "The Golden Opportunity," "A Story of Doom," "The

Moorish Gold," "The Minnows with Silver Tails." Her second series of poems was published in 1876 and her third series in 1885. Never very strong physically, Miss Ingelow devoted little time to society and used to spend her winters in the south of France or Italy. Her first ambition evidently was to care for the happiness of her two brothers in the home. In later years she gave a dinner three times a week to twelve poor people just discharged from the hospital. These she called her "copyright dinners" because she paid for them with the proceeds from her books.

*The Commercial Appeal.* (Memphis, Tenn.)

Her later works were principally prose fiction, a field in which she was successful. Her poems are of a higher order and finish than those of Mrs. Hemans, whom she resembles in many respects. She was a worthy representative of the earlier Victorian school, chaste, dignified, and soulful. Her works will live to cheer and chasten long after the perverted stanzas of modern writers are forgotten.

*The Philadelphia Inquirer.* (Pa.)

Of the minor poets of the Victorian era a high place must be awarded to Jean Ingelow. While she has written considerable prose, it is not by that she is likely to be remembered, but by the poems which she first published, and which have had a popularity that was perennial.

*Providence Journal.* (R. I.)

The modest and somewhat homely character of her temperament gave her her special field in verse-

writing, and in the same way marked out the prose domain in which she was to take her position. She will be remembered best by her verse, however, which has a quality of rhythm and metrical solidity, so to speak, that is lacking in the poetry of any other minor English writer of the Victorian era. Some of this will probably live long, for it has a truly lyrical feeling.

*The Mail and Express.* (New York, N. Y.)

Jean Ingelow is dead. Thus passes the last of a group of English women peculiarly distinguished in the literary world of a generation ago, and deemed worthy to occupy the same throne on which were elevated the sterner giants of the pen. In the day of Tennyson, of Dickens, of Thackeray, of Carlyle, of John Stuart Mill, and all their noble fellows, Jean Ingelow modestly yet forcefully formed one of the feminine circle which included such women as Harriet Martineau, George Eliot, and Mrs. Browning.

## THE EXTRA SESSION OF CONGRESS.

THOUGH concerned chiefly with the tariff, the extra session of Congress, held March 15-24, took action also on several other important questions. These include the Sundry Civil, the Agricultural, the Indian, and the General Deficiency Bills, which failed on March 4. As finally passed, the General Deficiency Bill appropriates \$25,000 as preliminary expenses for the representation of the United States at the Paris exposition in 1890, and \$150,000 for a new immigrant station at New York; it also limits to \$300 a ton the cost of armor-plate for the three new battle ships. The Indian Bill decides the question of sectarian schools as follows: "The secretary of the interior may make contracts with contract schools, apportioning as near as may be the amount so contracted for among schools of various denominations for the education of Indian pupils during the fiscal year 1893, but shall only make such contracts at places where non-sectarian schools cannot be provided for such Indian children, and to an amount not exceeding forty per cent of the amount so used for the fiscal year 1895." The Sundry Civil Law annuls the order of President Cleveland allotting about 21,000,000 acres of land for forest reserves. It appropriates \$50,000 for the relief of American citizens in Cuba, \$200,000 for the Mississippi flood sufferers; empowers the secretary of the navy to transport supplies to the famine sufferers in India, and grants \$50,000 for the expenses of the delegates to the Universal Postal Congress held in Washington, D. C. The more general laws passed by this Congress are those to prevent collisions at sea and upon certain harbors and inland waters of the United States and the measure authorizing the suspension by the president of discriminating duties on foreign vessels and commerce.

(Dem.) *The Commercial Appeal.* (Memphis, Tenn.)

Congress has adjourned and the debts which the Republican party owed to the trusts and combines for campaign contributions have been paid. Reed's dragooning of the members of Congress has also come to an end.

(Ind.) *The Evening Post.* (New York, N. Y.)

Never since the establishment of the government has the legislative body sat so long with so complete a suppression of action on the part of one branch. The House passed the tariff bill within about a fortnight of its first meeting, and then for three months did practically nothing.

(Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

On the whole Congress has supplied a pretty fair illustration of the immortal truth that the way to do a thing is to do it.

(Rep.) *The Kansas City Journal.* (Mo.)

Even the most intolerable enemies of the McKinley administration must admit that it is making extraordinarily good progress in the work the people elected it to do. Rarely, if ever, has an administration accomplished so much in so short a time after its inauguration. It has been aided by exceptionally good leadership in both the House and Senate, and it has been fortunate to have such assistance.

(Rep.) *The Inter Ocean.* (Chicago, Ill.)

Never before were the promises of the platform of a national convention so quickly fulfilled.

(Dem.) *Times-Union.* (Jacksonville, Fla.)

The party in power did not dare to trust the House to do anything whatever, though having a larger majority in it and a speaker in the chair endowed with almost autocratic power.



## SENATOR ISHAM GREEN HARRIS.



SENATOR ISHAM GREEN HARRIS.

THE venerable senator of Tennessee, Isham Green Harris, died at his home in Washington, D. C., on July 8. He was born on a farm near Tullahoma, Coffee County, Tenn., on February 10, 1818. When fourteen years old he went to work as a shop boy in Paris, Tenn., and before he was nineteen he had secured a little schooling and had settled in Tippah County, where in partnership with his brother he became a successful merchant. By devoting his spare moments and his evenings to the study of law he was enabled to gain admittance to the bar in 1841. In the same year the Democratic party sent him to the state legislature. He was elected to Congress in 1848 and after serving there two terms he settled down to the practice of law in Memphis. He was elected to the governorship of Tennessee in 1857, 1859, and 1861, being known as one of the southern war governors. Mr. Harris was a staunch supporter of the Southern Confederacy and at various times was on the staffs of Generals Albert S. Johnston, J. E. Johnston, Beauregard, and Bragg. After the surrender of Lee, Mr. Harris escaped to Mexico and thence to England. In 1867 he resumed his law practice in Memphis. He was elected United States senator in 1883, 1889, and 1895, serving continuously as senator for a little more than twenty years. Nearly every post of honor in the Senate has at some time been held by him; he was president *pro tempore* in the Fifty-third Congress, a leading member in Committees on Finance and Rules and in the Democratic Advisory Committee, was recognized by both sides of the chamber as authority on parliamentary rules, especially in late years, and he was one of three Democratic senators entrusted with drawing up the Wilson-Gorman Tariff Act in 1894. He championed the free silver cause. Of Senator Harris' family four sons survive him. The vacant senatorial chair will be occupied by Thomas B. Turley, of Memphis, whose appointment thereto by Governor Taylor was announced on July 19.

*The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

Harris was a powerful, rugged character.

*The Mail and Express.* (New York, N. Y.)

The death of Isham G. Harris removes from the Senate one of its most picturesque figures and, so far as a knowledge of parliamentary law is concerned, one of its most useful members. Although he always commanded respect for the sincerity of his opinions, it must be said that upon almost every great public question that arose during his career he was on the wrong side.

*Denver Republican.* (Col.)

He was an honest, able, courageous legislator. He belonged to the old school of American states-

men, and even malice never suggested that he was financially interested in any measure which he supported during his long service in Congress. The money power never had any strings attached to him, and he was an uncompromising opponent of trusts and monopolies from first to last.

*Providence Journal.* (R. I.)

That Governor Taylor of Tennessee should appoint an unknown man to the seat in the Senate made vacant by the death of Mr. Harris is not such an extraordinary act. Senator Turley will be as well known hereafter as Senators Wellington, Heitfeld, Devoe, and a number of others are now. Who knows, also, whether he may not prove as useful as any of them?

## THE CONSOLIDATION OF CENTRAL AMERICA.

THE confederation of all the states of Central America into one republic is closely approaching realization. The first compact to this end, known as the Treaty of Amalpa, was made in September, 1895. Its announced object was the mutual promotion of peace and prosperity in the Central American countries and the amicable adjustment of all disputes between any one of them and any foreign nation. On September 15, 1866, this treaty was ratified at San Salvador by representatives of Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua, both Costa Rica and Guatemala refusing to join the union. On June 15, 1897, these two republics signed a treaty including the conditions of the Amalpa agreement and in addition providing considerable legislation for the new union. This will go into effect on September 15 if nothing arises to prevent its ratification by that time. The federation then will be known as "The Republic of Central America." Its legislative body will consist of a diet of deputies from the states, who will meet in turn at

the different capitals of the states. In cases requiring arbitration, preference will be given to the United States. The aggregate area of the new republic is 185,825 square miles; its population is 3,000,000.

*The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)*

The doubtful and rather threatening attitude of Mexico, and the intervention of that republic in several of the wars of the Central American states, probably had much to do with the union of these little powers, which have an army of 175,000 men.

*The Press. (Albany, N. Y.)*

While the consolidation may be better described as a confederation than as a positive thing, it is not improbable that in the course of time the amalgamation will be made complete in the same sense as the indissoluble union of the United States of

America. The United States welcomes the disposition of the Central American states to work together in harmony, as this tends toward the maintenance of the American policy as exhibited in the Monroe Doctrine.

*San Francisco Chronicle. (Cal.)*

A novel experiment will be tried in the retention in office of the five presidents, each one taking his turn annually as head of the governing diet. Probably in time these functionaries will become governors of states, but to make transition easy the plan devised is doubtless as good as any.

### CHARLES FREDERICK CROCKER.



CHARLES FREDERICK CROCKER.

THE death of Col. C. F. Crocker, first vice-president of the Southern Pacific Railway Company, occurred on July 17, at Uplands, San Mateo, Cal. Charles Frederick Crocker was born in Sacramento, Cal., on December 28, 1854. As a youth he was not robust and before beginning college he traveled in Europe for his health, entering the Polytechnic Institute in Brooklyn, N. Y., in 1873. Failing eyesight obliged him to discontinue his studies and he again made a tour of Europe. At the age of twenty-one he returned to his native state and undertook to master railroading. His father was one of the four founders of the Central Pacific Railroad and, though then a millionaire, desiring to have his son learn the business on its practical side he placed the young man in a common clerkship under the division superintendent on the Oakland wharf. After learning the details of this position, Colonel Crocker, as he was called, served a year in the general freight office in San Francisco. All this time he worked as faithfully and received the same pay as his fellow clerks. Finally as a financial agent for the company

and purchaser of all its fuel he showed such marked executive ability that he was made third vice-president of the company, a position created expressly for him. In 1888 he was advanced to the second vice-presidency and in the long absences of the superior officials was entrusted with the entire management of the road on the western coast. In the same year his father died, leaving to him and his brother William the administration of an estate valued at \$24,000,000. His mother's death fourteen months later increased this burden. Upon Leland Stanford's resignation from the presidency of the railroad company Mr. Crocker was made vice-president, being then only thirty-six years old. Colonel Crocker was active in the National Guards. He gave to the Lick Observatory its best photographic instrument, and made many other donations in the cause of science. He also gave liberally to charities. In 1880 he married Miss Easton. She died in 1887. Three children survive him.

*The Tribune. (Salt Lake City, Utah.)*

The Southern Pacific and almost every one connected with it pass under daily criticism. Most bitter things are said, most fiery invective is exhausted, but from it all Col. Fred Crocker has personally escaped. No one has complained of him. In him men have recognized a kindly, honorable gentleman, with heart charged only with generous impulses, and as one utterly unspoiled by great wealth. He wore his honors with perfect gentleness and without the slightest ostentation.

*San Francisco Chronicle. (Cal.)*

The record of this life is that of a well-ordered, sober, methodical, and industrious man; one whose promotion to high station is attributed to inheritance where in any other case it would be accepted as an evidence of real merit. Yet this man had received no undeserved advancement and the position he won was honorably obtained and fairly maintained. Among all rich men he was the most unspoiled of millionaires. He had no ambitions politically, but he was highly esteemed among business men.

## YOUNG PEOPLE'S RELIGIOUS CONVENTIONS.

THE growing activity of young people in religious work was emphasized in July by four great conventions. The least of these conventions in point of size was that of the Universalist Young People's Unions held in Detroit on July 7. It numbered 800 delegates. A growth of twenty-three new unions was reported, making in all 500 unions with a total membership of 15,000. During the year they have contributed more than \$6,000 to missions and general work. The Christian Endeavor Convention, held in San Francisco July 8-13, was attended by 25,000 delegates. The total membership of the organization is more than 3,000,000. Its roll of honor shows that 10,468 of the societies have given nearly \$200,000 to missions and as much more to other benevolences. One branch only three months old, called the Tenth Legion, and composed of those who pledge themselves to give at least one tenth of their income to the Lord, reported more than 1,600 members. The Epworth League Convention, on July 15-20 at Toronto, Can., called together 30,000 representatives. The League has about 2,000,000 souls in its ranks. Its influence is constantly widening, the number of its chapters having more than doubled within four years. The convention adopted resolutions affirming loyalty to temperance work and Sabbath observance, declaring it to be a Christian's duty to take part in politics and "to stand for civic reform and social righteousness," and favoring an Anglo-American arbitration treaty. The Baptist Young People's Convention took place July 15-18 in Chattanooga, Tenn., with about 20,000 delegates present. They report the formation of many new societies during the year. The Christian Culture Courses were found to have advanced in popularity, 13,407 examinations having been submitted in 1897 as compared with 11,445 in 1896.

*The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)*

One fact stands on a prominence: the churches as never before are recognizing their need of the young people, and with it the need of the young people themselves in relation to church work.

*The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)*

It is incontrovertible that the most critical period in the life of any human organization is when it becomes great in point of numbers and is successful, and when the world begins to look upon it and to marvel at its growth. It needs then that quiet and unprejudiced judgment should actuate its leaders, that they should not mistake popularity for performance, and that while they claim a larger liberty in devising new ways for doing the old work of the church, and insist that the infidelity, the materialism, the apathy, and the doubt that prevail in the world have produced conditions which demand reform other than by the old-fashioned methods, they should not forget that platform talks, roll-calls to which thousands answer, complications of machinery, and vast and unwieldy organizations will not do all that is needed at the close of the nineteenth century.

*(Bapt.) The Commonwealth. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

We have no word of criticism on these young people's gatherings. They have been of vast service to the church and have conducted to increased earnestness therein. We have been inclined, however, to put an interrogation mark in connection with the advisability of these long journeys for the very flower of our young people, save under auspices that do not always obtain, and frequently to wonder whether the vast expense incurred has found its most judicious investment,

These queries, to use the phrase of a somewhat noted book, are "worth thinking of." From the very first of this movement the writer has felt that a triennial convention would serve every needed religious purpose, and during the other two years smaller gatherings might be held in conjunction with the older denominational bodies.

*Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)*

If we are ever to have clean government in municipalities, it must come through a revolt of organized religion and morality against our present complacent and easy-going acquiescence in the rule of unworthy officials and in questionable and disreputable political methods. These young people are or will soon become voters, and some of them will help to make laws or otherwise assist in the responsible work of government. Their influence should be felt upon the right side of all public measures which make for the safety, honor, and welfare of the nation.

*(Unit.) The Christian Register. (Boston, Mass.)*

There has been some question as to how far it is expedient or proper that there should be so great an expenditure to gather together these conventions merely for a few days, when money is so much needed for various church missions and charities. But the stimulus and encouragement given to the individual participants in such great meetings are worth much; the quickening of a sense of unity and of the consciousness of a common purpose is still more valuable; and perhaps most valuable of all is the general broadening of interests necessarily incidental to the journey, the novel experiences enjoyed, the larger information and knowledge acquired of men.

## SUMMARY OF NEWS.

## HOME.

July 6. President McKinley and his party return from Canton, O., to Washington, D. C.

July 7. The National Education Association at Milwaukee, Wis., elects Charles De Garmo, Swarthmore, Pa., to its presidency.

July 10. Judge Simonton, in the United States circuit court at Charleston, S. C., grants a perpetual injunction against interference with the original package stores by the state dispensary constables.

July 12. A number of Massachusetts cotton mills resume work.—The Lexow anti-trust laws are declared unconstitutional by Justice Chester, of Albany, N. Y.

July 14. President McKinley revokes ex-president Cleveland's order reducing the number of pension agencies from eighteen to nine.—The National League of Republican Clubs at Detroit, Mich., elects L. J. Crawford, of Newport, Ky., to its presidency.

July 15. The Republican National League at Detroit reelects M. J. Dowling to its secretaryship.—The Trans-Mississippi Congress begins its session at Salt Lake City, Utah, and is addressed by Wm. J. Bryan.

July 17. T. V. Powderly, ex-master-workman of the Knights of Labor, is nominated by President McKinley for commissioner-general of immigration.

July 22. The president names for the Nicaragua Canal commission Rear-Admiral J. G. Walker, U. S. N., Capt. O. M. Carter, corps of engineers, U. S. A., and L. M. Haupt, of Pennsylvania.—President E. B. Andrews of Brown University, Rhode Island, resigns by request of the authorities of the university, because of their objections to his championing free silver.—A monument to Gen. John A. Logan is unveiled in Chicago, Ill., with imposing ceremonies.

July 27. President McKinley appoints Robert J. Tracewell controller of the treasury and Moses P. Handy special commissioner to the Paris exposition of 1890.

July 28. The president revises the civil service regulations.—The president begins his vacation at Lake Champlain.—W. L. Merry, of San Francisco, Cal., the recently appointed United States minister, is declared *persona non grata* by the Diet of the Greater Republic of Central America.

August 3. The eighteenth national meeting of the League of American Wheelmen is held in Philadelphia, Pa.

## FOREIGN.

July 6. The International Congress of Naval Architects and Marine Engineers opens in London.

July 7. The French government instructs its em-

bassy in London to cooperate with the American monetary commissioners in negotiating with the British government.—The United States war-ships *San Francisco* and *Raleigh* are sent from Smyrna to Tangier to put a stop to the annoyance of American citizens in Morocco.

July 8. The Conference of Charities and Correction holds its twenty-fourth annual meeting in Toronto, Can.

July 9. In a collective note representatives of the powers warn Turkey to cease blocking the peace negotiations.

July 12. At the Foreign Office in London the American monetary commissioners confer with Lord Salisbury and other British officials.

July 15. Turkey renews military operations at Mount Othrys.

July 16. Mr. Balfour states in the British House of Commons that no prosecutions will result from the report of the select South Africa committee.—Upon the recommendation of Captain-General Weyler, of Cuba, eight insurgent chiefs sentenced to death are pardoned by the queen regent of Spain.

July 18. The conference of the representatives of the powers adjourns to await Turkey's acceptance of the strategic frontier proposed by them.

July 19. The czar of Russia telegraphs to the sultan demanding that the Turks immediately withdraw from Thessaly.

July 21. The sultan yields to the powers on the question of the frontier line.

July 25. Wrestling matches and prize-fighting are prohibited in Mexico by the governor.

July 29. Advices from Rome report that Italy has ceded Kassala, in Abyssinia, to Great Britain.

July 30. Great Britain rescinds the commercial treaty with Germany which has obtained since 1865. A new treaty is proposed by Sir Frank Lascales.—The king of Siam arrives in England.

July 31. Captain-General Weyler proclaims pardon to 1,500 exiles from Cuba.

July 6. The British Parliament adjourns till October 23.

## NECROLOGY.

July 6. Henri Meilhac, French dramatic author.

July 7. Joseph Edouard Dantan, French painter.

July 13. Geo. V. N. Lathrop, ex-United States minister to Russia.

July 21. Gen. D. W. Caldwell, president of the Lake Shore and Michigan Southern Railroad.

July 27. Ex-United States Senator J. R. Doolittle, of Wisconsin.

July 28. Li Hung Tsao, grand councilor of China.

## TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

**Insect Life.** The season when nature is rife with animation is the time when entomologists and those interested in their science are making close observations of the beings that people the air, the earth, and the water. And if one really gives attention to the matter he will be greatly astonished at the number and the variety of insects that exist. Professor Comstock says in the opening sentence of the introduction to his "Insect Life": "There are about us on every side myriads of tiny creatures that are commonly passed unnoticed." He further observes that "frequently upon the action of some of these minute beings depends the material success or failure of a great commonwealth." If this be true—and we opine that, in a measure, it is—then for this reason as well as for intellectual development or for mere pleasure it is important that we learn what we can of the structure, habitat, and ways of these little members of the animal kingdom. As a guide for the observation and study of nature Professor Comstock has prepared his manual on the life of insects, the subject matter of which is divided into two parts. In Part I. there are short but comprehensive lessons on insect life, in which the anatomical structure, metamorphosis, and classification of insects are studied. For fields of observation the author conducts the student to the pond, the brook, the orchard, the forest, and the roadside, and guides him in systematic work by a few well-directed hints. The second division of the volume describes and tells how to make some of the apparatus necessary for collecting and preserving specimens, and gives detailed directions for using it. Where entomological supplies, optical instruments, and books on entomology may be purchased is told in the last chapter. Both parts of the book are well illustrated, making it a comparatively easy task to identify and classify species as well as to obtain a cabinet of rare specimens.

**History.** The third volume of "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire"† opens with a presentation of the condition of the church in 363 A.D. and closes with the death of

Valentinian, in 455 A.D. The numerous foot-notes and the appendices furnish the reader with the necessary annotations.

A novel history which deals with America and her interests is a book composed of extracts from original writings, telling of the discovery of America, the early voyages to this continent, the conditions under which colonization proceeded, and many interesting facts connected with the founding of the different colonies. These extracts being from the works of those who lived very near the periods which they describe, there are in them many examples of quaint and unique literary productions in which the original spelling has been retained. The quotations from foreign languages are translated into English representative of the times in which they were written. An introduction on the sources of history and their utility contains also many suggestions as to the use to be made of them by pupils, teachers, libraries, and general readers. This is the first volume of a series called *American History Told by Contemporaries*,\* and it presents the period of colonization from 1492 to 1689.

R. W. Frazer, LL.B., is the author of a history of British India,† which he opens with an interesting account of the development of commerce from the first beginnings of trade. From this he proceeds to explain how Great Britain obtained a foothold in India, after which he follows the course of the events that brought so much of India under British dominion. The services of Robert Clive, Warren Hastings, Lord Cornwallis, Lord Amherst, Sir John Lawrence, and other prominent men are fully set forth without wearisome details in regard to battles and campaigns. There are several illustrations in this volume, which is one of the series known as *The Story of the Nations*.

The "History of Ancient Peoples,"‡ the author remarks, is prepared largely from material in *The Story of the Nations* series, to supply the "demand for a single volume bringing together all the material in a form convenient for use in the classroom and the reading circle." Necessarily the author has taken for his opening subject theories concerning the origin of man. An account then follows of the yellow races, the Hamites, and the Semites. Concerning these peoples we are told in a forceful way

\* *Insect Life. An Introduction to Nature-Study and a Guide for Teachers, Students, and Others Interested in Out-of-Door Life.* By John Henry Comstock. With many original illustrations by Anna Botsford Comstock. 349 pp. \$2.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† *The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.* With introductions, notes, appendices, and index by J. B. Bury, M. A. Vol. III. 521 pp. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

\* *American History Told by Contemporaries. Era of Colonization. 1492-1689.* Edited by Albert Bushnell Hart. Vol. I. 615 pp. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† *British India.* By R. W. Frazer, LL.B., I. C. S. (Retired). 417 pp. \$1.50.—‡ *History of Ancient Peoples.* By William Boughton, A. M. With 110 illustrations and 6 maps. 575 pp. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.



of their probable origin, their progress in civilization, and culture in art, language, literature, and religion. Over one hundred illustrations are used to light up the text and half a dozen maps contribute to the clear understanding of the history.

"Undercurrents of the Second Empire"\* is a recital, made in an easy, pleasant style, of incidents in which Louis Napoleon was chief actor. There are many quotations interwoven with the narrative and the foot-notes are interesting as well as instructive.

A history of England† suited to the intellectual capacity of quite youthful readers has been written by Frances E. Cooke. There are no long, involved sentences or very difficult words to perplex a child, but in simple, direct statements the progress of the English nation is traced from the landing of Julius Cæsar to the passage of the third Reform Bill in 1834. Following the table of contents is a list of all the sovereigns of England, showing the date on which each reign began.

Another history‡ designed for young readers is the story of Germany by Kate Freiligrath Kroeker. The events in the history of Germany from 113 B. C. to 1871 are described in language which any thoughtful child can understand. The addition of a map of Germany and the adjacent country would help to make the first part of the account more comprehensible.

The history of the Madeira Islands|| as written by Anthony J. Drexel Biddle is very entertaining. The romance connected with the discovery of the island is well told and the vivid descriptions of the habits and customs of the people, of the climate, soil, and productions of the islands arouse in the reader a desire to visit that part of the world. The numerous illustrations are not necessary accompaniments of the text, but they add to the impressions of the descriptions. Several maps are included in the volume.

#### Religious.

Two volumes§ of "The Modern Reader's Bible" contain the books of Isaiah and Ezekiel. The text of the Revised Version is used and the arrangement of the contents is in harmony with that of the most modern literary productions. The introduction of each

\* Undercurrents of the Second Empire (Notes and Recollections). By Albert D. Vandam. 442 pp. \$2.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

† History for Young Readers. England. By Frances E. Cooke. 265 pp.—‡ History for Young Readers. Germany. By Kate Freiligrath Kroeker. 261 pp. 60 cts. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

|| The Madeira Islands. By Anthony J. Drexel Biddle. First Edition. Illustrated. 111 pp. Philadelphia: Drexel, Biddle & Bradley, Publishing Company.

§ Isaiah. Edited with an introduction and notes by Richard G. Moulton, M.A. (Camb.), Ph.D. (Penn.). 279 pp. 50 cents.

—Ezekiel. Edited with an introduction and notes by Richard G. Moulton, M.A. (Camb.), Ph.D. (Penn.). 238 pp. 50 cents. New York: The Macmillan Company.

contains a literary analysis of the book, and many explanatory notes form the last few pages of the volumes, which in the present form are well adapted to a literary and interpretative study of these portions of the Bible.

The subject of faith is treated from a psychological standpoint by Dr. Julian Henry Myers in a small volume entitled "Philosophy of Faith."\* His thesis as stated in the introduction is, "Faith is the self-surrender of the soul to apparent truth." In proof of this proposition he considers faith in its relation to intuition, reason, science, volition, religion, sin, revelation, and Scripture, and sets forth in a plain, concise manner opinions concerning a faith-faculty, and the results to be accomplished by faith. An additional chapter is entitled "Christ and His Enemies."

"Studies in the Acts of the Apostles"† is intended as a guide to the Bible student. It contains an analytical outline of the book of Acts, each division of which forms the topic for a lesson. With the Bible for a text-book and this little volume for a guide the student is well equipped for a careful and thorough study of Acts in twelve lessons.

In a series of sermon-like productions, to which the title "Better Things for Sons of God"‡ has been given, the author shows the possibilities of Christian culture. The first of the series, "Visions," is an earnest appeal to seek for the revelation of God's will and to attain to a life of perfection. Then follow discourses on the purifying power of the heavenly fire, the temples of Christ, the work intended for the people of the earth, and "the equipment of the sons of God." Many practical truths are presented in this series of discourses and no one can read them without feeling an impulse to better Christian living.

"Is there a Beyond?"|| is a question propounded by Dr. Henry D. Kimball for the purpose of setting forth the arguments in proof of an affirmative reply. That there is a conscious existence after death he shows by what he terms "the natural argument" and by citing the teachings of the Bible. The much mooted question of an intermediate state he next considers. This is followed by discussions on the resurrection, the physical appearance of the people in heaven, the conditions which exist there, the recognition of friends, and the judgment. The arguments are presented in a clear and logical manner, and the thoughtful reader, even if he does not wholly agree with the author in his conclusions,

\* Philosophy of Faith. By Julian Henry Myers, Ph.D. 110 pp. 80 cts.—† Studies in the Acts of the Apostles. By B. B. Loomis, Ph.D., D.D. 71 pp. Paper, 25 cts. Cloth, 40 cts.—‡ Better Things for Sons of God. By George T. Lemmon. 184 pp. 75 cts.—|| Beyond the Horizon, or Bright Side Chapters on the Future Life. By Henry D. Kimball, D.D. 250 pp. \$1.00. New York: Eaton & Mains; Cincinnati, Curts & Jennings.

will respect the very rational presentation of a subject which should interest every one.

A small volume entitled "An introduction to the Study of the Acts of the Apostles"\* contains many helpful explanations of this portion of the Bible. The author has followed the Bible narrative from the very first chapter, and in simple, concise sentences has pointed out the logical relation of the various incidents recorded. It is not intended as a commentary, the preface tells us, nor is it one, but read in connection with the biblical text much light will be thrown on the obscure passages, and the history of the early church will be much more easily comprehended.

A study in the New Testament teachings is called "The Holy Spirit in the New Testament Scriptures."† The nature and office of the Holy Ghost are shown by a large number of Bible passages classified under three general heads: (1) What was said of the Holy Spirit before the appearance of Christ; (2) What Christ said of the Holy Spirit during his personal ministry; and (3) What was said of the Holy Spirit in the supplementary writings of the New Testament Scriptures. The added comments of the author, written in a clear, cogent style, show the power of the Holy Spirit on the life of a Christian who yields himself to its influence.

The life and times of St. Paul‡ have furnished subjects for many literary productions, no one of which is more interesting than a volume by James Iverach, M.A. In this history of the career of St. Paul the author has shown the harmony of Luke's account in "The Acts of the Apostles" with Paul's own statements in regard to the events of his life; he has given a picture of the times in which St. Paul lived, and outlined the progress of the Christian Church. Simply and concisely the author has presented the facts, and wherever a quotation is made a foot-note indicates the source from which it was taken. The closing chapter of the work is a short but comprehensive presentation of the Pauline theology.

In "The House of Dreams"§ the author, who seems to prefer to remain unknown, has taken a novel way to impart to the world his opinions concerning the future life, the final judgment, and the care which God exercises over the people of the earth. It is a dream which the author has related and its very weirdness will impel the reader to turn page after page.

\* An Introduction to the Study of the Acts of the Apostles. By J. M. Stiffer, D.D. 293 pp. 75 cts.—† The Holy Spirit in the New Testament Scriptures. By William Campbell Scofield. 302 pp. \$1.00.—‡ St. Paul, His Life and Times. By James Iverach, M.A. 224 pp. 75 cts. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

§ The House of Dreams. 207 pp. \$1.25 New York: Dodd, Mead and Company.

Miscellaneous. An extremely useful volume for any library is a dictionary of quotations.

To the already long list of books of this class is added another\* by Lieut.-Col. Philip Hugh Dalbiac, M. P. It contains many hundreds of quotations from English and American authors and to each is added the name of the author and the work from which it is taken. The necessary indexes of authors and subjects are quite complete.

The revised edition of J. K. Hoyt's collection of quotations† presents many excellent features. The first to take the attention of the reader is the large number of quotations, including many from the Latin and modern foreign languages, and after each is recorded the source from which it is derived. The arrangement of the selections by subjects is an admirable feature, to which the topical index with its numerous cross references is a valuable adjunct. Turning to the back of the book we find nearly three hundred pages given up to a concordance to the quotations and a list of the authors quoted, which contains at least four biographical facts concerning each author and references to the pages on which the quotations are found. The translations of Latin law terms and of Latin and French mottoes increase the utility of a work of this kind, to which every professional man must frequently refer. The volume is neatly and substantially bound and the contents have been printed in clear type on a good quality of paper.

In the interest of education in the forensic art two educators have prepared a book called "Briefs for Debate."‡ The practical work of students in Harvard University, we are told, furnished the basis for the present work, which contains briefs on political, economic, and sociological subjects, with numerous bibliographical references. A long list of debatable subjects is appended and the introduction by Professor Hart contains many valuable suggestions.

Many true and helpful sentiments are expressed in a book entitled "A Man's Value to Society,"§ a series of essays relating to character building and the possibilities of self-culture. By the use of well-chosen similes, metaphors, and anecdotes the author brings to the mind of the reader the relation of health, memory, right thinking, imagination, con-

\* Dictionary of Quotations (English). By Lieutenant-Colonel Philip Hugh Dalbiac, M. P. 510 pp. \$2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† The Cyclopaedia of Practical Quotations. By J. K. Hoyt. A new edition, revised, corrected, and enlarged. 1205 pp. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company.

‡ Briefs for Debate on Current Political, Economic, and Social Topics. Edited by W. Du Bois Brookings, A. B. and Ralph Curtis Ringwalt, A. B. With an introduction by Albert Bushnell Hart, Ph. D. 260 pp. \$1.25. New York: Longmans, Green and Co.

§ A Man's Value to Society. By Newall Dwight Hillis. 32 pp. \$1.25. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

science, enthusiasm, and books to character, and closes with an essay on the duty of attaining the highest possible self-culture.

"Seed Thoughts for Mothers"\* is a compilation of three hundred and sixty-six quotations on the relation of mother and child and on the training of children. Nearly one hundred authors are represented in the contents, which the publisher has done up in dainty covers of green and gold.

Those who feel the need of guidance in the selection of reading matter will do well to read "A Talk About Books."† In this monograph by J. N. Larned books are considered as "carriers in the commerce of mind with mind," and with the generalizations on the utility of books the author has suggested a number of historical and biographical works which ought to be read.

The publishers of the American edition of "Henriette Davidis' Practical Cook Book"‡ announce that it conforms in typographical arrangement to the German edition. A few pages of the book—about fifty—give directions for preparing dishes according to the American style, but the remainder of the volume gives recipes distinctly German in their character, many of which the translator has failed to make perfectly free from ambiguity. The weights and measures are given in terms of the American system and English-German and German-English vocabularies are appended to the volume.

"How Successful Lawyers Were Educated"§ is the title of a small volume which contains many good things for the edification of prospective law students. In the first half of the book there is advice on the preparation for legal studies, the selection of a law school, and subsequent office affiliation, interwoven with which are the opinions of noted lawyers and public men on these subjects. The second half of the book is a series of short biographical sketches of lawyers who have risen high in the profession, each sketch being preceded by the portrait of the man mentioned. Prepared by a lawyer, the advice contained in the book should be regarded as especially valuable.

The year-book which bears the title, "About Children: What Men and Women Have Said"§

\*Seed Thoughts for Mothers. A Year-Book. Compiled by Mrs. Minnie E. Paull. 288 pp. 75 cts. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

† A Talk About Books. By J. N. Larned. 36 pp. Buffalo: The Peter Paul Book Co.

‡ Henriette Davidis' Practical Cook Book. Compiled for the United States from the thirty-fifth German edition. 717 pp. Cloth, \$1.25. Oil-cloth, \$1.50. Milwaukee, Wis.: C. N. Caspar & H. H. Zahn & Co.

§ How Successful Lawyers Were Educated. By George A. Macdonald, B. S., LL. B. 161 pp. \$1.00. New York: Banks & Brothers.

§ About Children: What Men and Women Have Said. Chosen and arranged by Rose Porter. 221 pp. \$1.00. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

is a collection of quotations from the world's greatest writers. The compiler is to be commended for the systematic arrangement of the selections, which represent French, German, American, British, and the classical authors.

Eliza Atkins Stone has drawn from one hundred different authors in her collection of quotations on friendship.\* For each day in the year there is some sentiment which will lift the reader to a higher plane of living.

There is a particular province in which God and nature have destined the women of our land to work, and that field is the home. So thinks Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst, and he has expressed his sentiments in "Talks to Young Women"† with considerable force and cogency. There are many of his statements which thoughtful women will consider seriously before endorsing, but there is nothing in these talks which if lived up to would not lead to nobler lives and promote the general progress of civilization.

A book which in binding and typographical work is a counterpart to the "Talks to Young Women" is Dr. Parkhurst's "Talks to Young Men."‡ In the same fearless, frank manner he has set forth his opinions on topics about which every young man must sometime think. All that he says in regard to college training and its substitute, the religious life, citizenship, recreations, and marriage of a young man, the choice of a career, and his views of life, are not at all visionary, but full of practical common sense.

How to inspire children with reverence and love for the Sabbath day is a question which has puzzled many. Very practicable suggestions for accomplishing this happy result are offered by Fanny A. Welcher in a dainty booklet|| which also contains quotations appropriate to the subject.

#### BOOKS RECEIVED.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT COMPANY, PHILADELPHIA.  
Stoddard, William O. Chumley's Post. A Story of the Pawnee Trail. \$1.50.  
Ramé, Louisa de la. (Ouida.) Two Little Wooden Shoes: A Story. \$1.50.

LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO., NEW YORK.  
Coleridge's The Rime of the Ancient Mariner. Edited with notes and an introduction by Herbert Bates, A.B.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, NEW YORK.  
Benson, Edward F. The Babe, B. A. At Wellesley, Legends for 1896. Published for the Senior Class of Wellesley College. \$1.00.  
Phyfe, William Henry P. Five Thousand Words Often Misspelled. 75 cts.

\* Concerning Friendship. Compiled by Eliza Atkins Stone. 209 pp. \$1.00. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

† Talks to Young Women. By Charles H. Parkhurst. 136 pp.—‡ Talks to Young Men. By Charles H. Parkhurst. 125 pp. New York: The Century Co.

|| How to Make Sabbath Afternoons Profitable and Pleasant for Children. By Fanny A. Welcher. 30 pp. 20 cts. Chattanooga, N. Y.: Fanny A. Welcher.



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The Chautauqua College was established to guide the studies and to prevent or correct the errors of individual self-educators. The students must do the work, but the professors guide, supervise, and criticise it. In this way each student not only works to the greatest advantage, but is sure of the results he has attained.

The Chautauqua College has no separate faculty of its own. The professors are chosen from those of some of the leading American colleges; and they send out their letters, instruction sheets, criticisms, and suggestions from the particular institutions in which they conduct their daily classes. Much better results can be accomplished by a student of mathematics, for instance, who receives all needed helps from a professor than by one who must depend solely upon a text-book. And what is true of mathematics is no less true of English, history, political economy, the sciences, the languages, etc. The very fact that the professors are connected with good colleges is evidence that they are authorities in their several departments. The courses offered in Chautauqua College are practically identical with those offered in regular colleges. They are genuine college courses and are not to be regarded as a substitute or as superficial in any way.

For the benefit of those who are not prepared to do regular college work a number of preparatory courses have been arranged. These are conducted by the regular professors and lead up naturally to the courses

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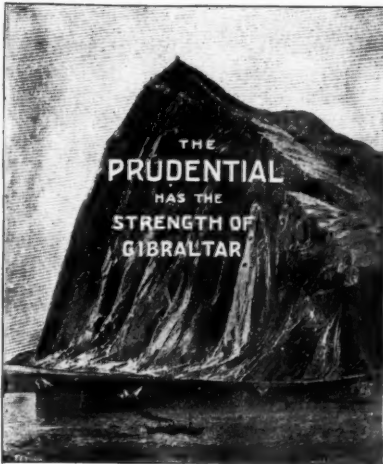
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For a complete list of educational announcements (schools, seminaries, and colleges) see the July number, pages 321 to 355.

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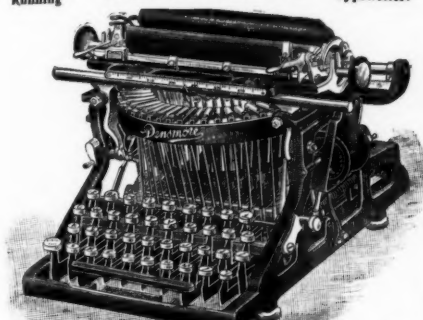
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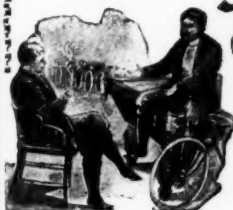
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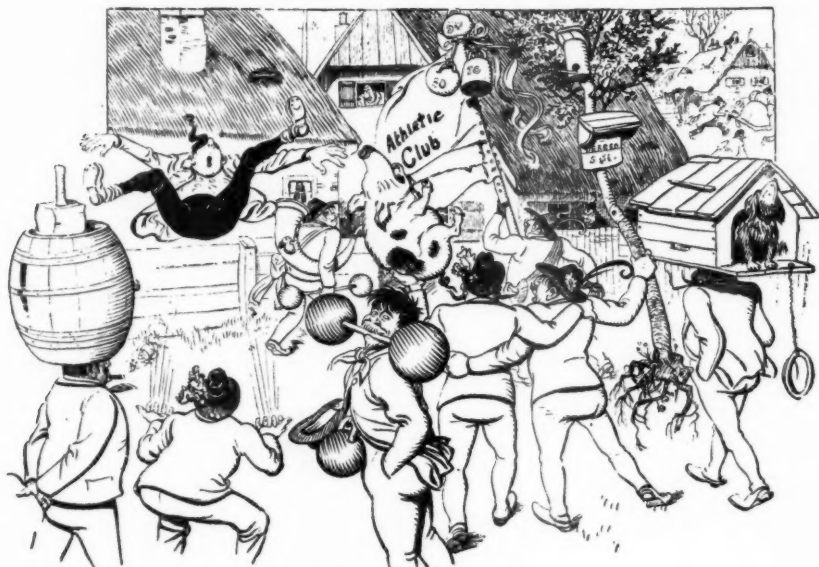
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# THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XXV.

SEPTEMBER, 1897.

NO. 6

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

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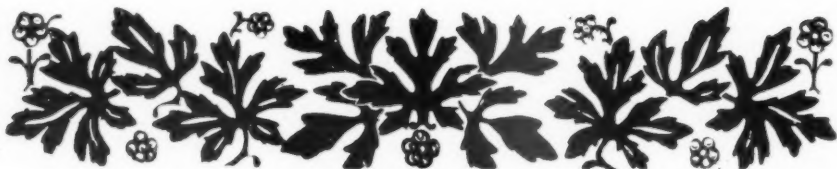
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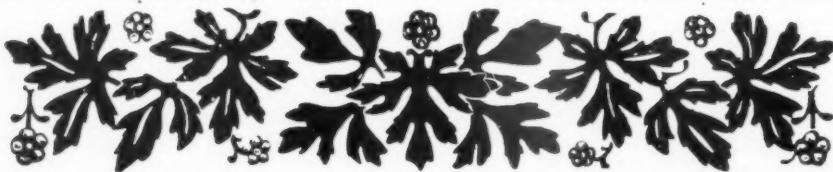
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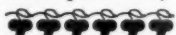


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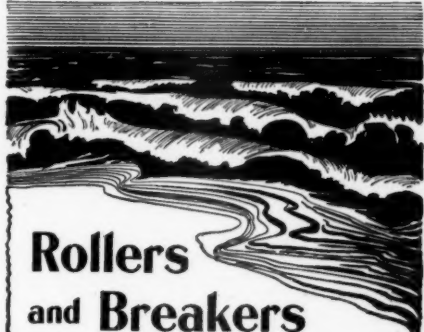
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